Precis of information concerning the Straits Settlements and the native states of the Malay Peninsula, with maps / prepared in the Intelligence Branch of the Quartermaster-General's Department, Horse Guards, War Office, from information furnished by H.E. the governor, and from other official sources, November 1882

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PRÉCIS OF INFORMATION

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PRÉCIS OF INFORMATION

CONCERNING THE

STRAITS SETTLEMENTS

AND THE

NATIVE STATES

OF THE

MALAY PENINSULA.

WITH MAPS.

PREPARED IN THE INTELLIGENCE BRANCH OF THE QUARTERMASTER-GENERAL'S DEPARTMENT, HORSE GUARDS, WAR OFFICE.

FROM INFORMATION FURNISHED BY H.E. THE GOVERNOR, AND FROM OTHER OFFICIAL SOURCES.

NOVEMBER, 1882.

LONDON:
PRINTED AT THE WAR OFFICE BY
HARRISON & SONS,
Printers in Ordinary to Her Majesty.

1883.

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PRÉCIS OF INFORMATION CONCERNING THE STRAITS SETTLEMENTS.

ERRATA AND ADDENDA.

SINGAPORE.

Section B, page 17.

For "a dozen vessels at a time," *read* "twenty vessels at a time." — Wharves.

For "a dock 450 ft., &c.," *read* "two docks, one (the Victoria) 450 ft. in length, 65 ft. wide at the entrance, and 20 ft. deep; the other (the Albert) 470 ft. long, 60 ft. wide at entrance, and 21 ft. deep. The largest iron-clads of the Dutch Navy make use of this latter dock, which is fitted with two centrifugal pumps, and can be emptied in 2½ hours." — Docks.

For "30,000 tons," *read* "100,000 tons, with a double line of tramways extending the entire length of the sheds." — Coal sheds

Section B, page 18.

For "Here are two docks, &c.," *read* "Here are two graving docks of the following dimensions, viz.:—

No. 1.—Length, 415 ft.
Depth of water, from 14 to 15½ ft.
Width at entrance, 42 ft.

No. 2.—Length, 459 ft.
Depth of water, from 19 to 20 ft.
Width at entrance, 62 ft.

This company constructs steam launches and vessels up to 500 tons."

Note.—The patent slip, east side of Hantu Island, does not now exist.

Section C, page 22.

After "at its mouth," top line, *insert* "here it is crossed by an iron suspension bridge, called the Cavanagh Bridge." — Rivers.

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Section D, page 27.

Bridges.

For "three" *read* "five."

For "the principal one is the Elgin," *read* "the principal ones are the Cavanagh iron suspension bridge and the Elgin, &c."

For "two wooden bridges," *read* "three wooden bridges, the Coleman, the Merchants', and the A B C."

Section D, page 28.

Public Buildings.

After "mouth of the river," top line, *add* "also on the site of what was Fort Fullerton a fine *club-house, post office,* and *Master Attendant's office,* have been erected."

KEDAH.

Section D, page 151 (134).

Communication—Telegraph.

Add "A contract has been recently signed between the Government of Siam and the Eastern Extension Telegraph Company, by which the latter agrees to lay a cable between Bankok and Patani, or Tringganu, and another between Kedah and Penang; the two cables to be connected by a short land line across the peninsula, which will be constructed by the Siamese Government.

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The following Explanation of Malayan Terms employed in the Text, may be found useful in referring to the map of the Malay Peninsula. The Spelling is based upon that adopted in Crawfurd's "Malayan and English Dictionary," the Admiralty Chart, and other available sources:—

Malay.		English.
Ayâr or	Ayer ..	Water.
Basâr	Besaar ..	Great.
Bâting	Batang ..	A Shoal River—a Flat.
Batu	.. ..	A Rock.
Bukit	.. ..	A Hill.
Gunung	Gunong ..	A Mountain.
Itam	Etam ..	Black.
Kampung	Kampong ..	A Village.
Kâchil	Ketzil ..	Little.
Kwala	Kwalla ..	Mouth of a River—Embouchure.
Karang	.. ..	Coral Reef.
Pulo	Pulau ..	An Island.
Sungai	Sungei ..	A River, Rivulet, or Brook.
Sâlut	Salat ..	A Channel or Strait.
Tanjung	Tangong	A Cape or Point.
Tâluk	Tullok ..	A Bay.
Tasik	Tasek ..	A Lake.
Ujung	Ugong ..	A Promontory, Headland.

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GENERAL DESCRIPTION

OF THE

MALAY PENINSULA.

GEOGRAPHY, &C.—CLIMATE.—AGRICULTURE, PRODUCTIONS AND TRADE.—INHABITANTS.

GEOGRAPHY, &C.

Situation and extent.

The Malay Peninsula, or Peninsula of Malacca, is the name given by European geographers to the long spit of land which forms the most southerly extremity of the continent of Asia, lying chiefly between the 1st and 8th degrees of north latitude, and the 98th and 104th of east longitude. To the north it is connected with the continent by the Isthmus of Kra, and is on all other sides surrounded by the sea, viz., on the west and south by the Straits of Malacca and the Straits of Singapore; and on the east by the China Sea and the Gulf of Siam.

The northern portion of this territory as far as latitude 6 degrees north, has a Siamese population, and forms part of the Kingdom of Siam; while the southern, which is mainly inhabited by the Malay race, is subdivided amongst native states and British colonies. The former portion will not here be treated of. The southern portion, the Malay Peninsula proper, extends from the Siamese frontier in a south-south-easterly direction to Cape Romania, having a length of 450 miles, with a breadth varying from 50 to 150 miles. Its area is estimated at 61,560 miles.

Islands.

Along the shores of the Peninsula lie many islands, not included in the above area. On the western and southern sides we have, besides many smaller ones, Trutao, Langkawi, Penang, the Dindings, Singapore, Batam and Bintang. On the eastern coast the islands are fewer and smaller. All these littoral islands are of the same character as the main land: their superficies may probably be not less than 5,000 square miles.

Mountains.

The entire length of the Peninsula is traversed by a central mountain chain, which renders communication between one coast

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and the other very difficult. In the northern portion this range attains an altitude of from 6,000 to 7,000 feet, but diminishes in height to about 3,000 feet as it approaches the equator. Mount Ophir, a detached peak near the frontier of Malacca, which rises to 3,840 feet above the sea, is much more lofty than any other summit in the southern part of the Peninsula.

The high land in the interior is at present little known; it is almost entirely covered with primeval jungle, and scarcely inhabited. Should it be found, however, that the hills are adapted for coffee or other cultivation, the whole face of the country may, within twenty years, be completely changed.

Between the mountains and the coast the surface is undulating, clothed with dense forests, or interspersed with grassy plains, which are by far the most numerous and extensive in the north. Except along the banks of the rivers the population is very scanty. There is, indeed, nothing in the nature of the soil to prevent the alluvial tracts along the coast being cultivated like Province Wellesley, but hitherto the weakness of the Malay Governments has prevented the formation of any extensive settlements, and for the most part the coast presents an unbroken line of jungle, with scarcely a sign of habitation.

Rivers. An abundance of rivers descends to either coast, in their progress frequently forming marshes and lakes. Their banks are generally low, swampy, and covered with mangrove, nipa, nibong and other trees. Although several of them are broad and moderately deep, the sandbanks, coral reefs, &c., at their mouths, usually preclude their navigation by vessels of any magnitude. The principal rivers are those of Kedah, Perak, Linggi, Muar and Formoso on the west coast; that of Johore at the southern extremity, and those of Pahang, Basut, Tringganu and Patani on the eastern shore.

Springs and rivulets are numerous.

Geology. The Malay mountain chain, as far as it has been hitherto explored, consists chiefly of grey stanniferous granite and clay-slate. At its southern extremity, porphyry occurs; hornblende is met with near Malacca; and quartz is very abundant around Mount Ophir and elsewhere. The geology of the east coast is almost wholly unknown, but along the west coast laterite is a very prevalent formation. Clay-slate, sandstone, argillaceous schist, jasper, grauwacké, and limestone are the other most prevalent rocks. Limestone composes a portion of several of the islands off the west coast, while those off the south coast are chiefly of granite or syenite. At the southern extremity of the Peninsula are evident traces of volcanic action; and numerous thermal springs, scattered over the country, testify to the activity of subterranean heat at no great distance below the surface.

Metals. The prevailing metals are tin, iron, and gold. The Peninsula, with the islands adjacent to it, contain by far the most extensive tin fields in the world, extending, as they do, over seventeen

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degrees of latitude, from Lat. 14° N. to Lat. 3° S.; and this metal forms its principal article of export. Iron ores are everywhere found, and in the south they exist in vast profusion, containing nearly 60 per cent. of pure metal. Gold is found on the east coast and near Mount Ophir, but only in small quantities.

Climate.

Climate.

The climate of the Malay Peninsula, like that of all other countries in the same latitude, is hot, and is remarkable for its continual moisture, to which circumstance the perpetual verdure of the country is mainly owing. The year is divided into the wet and dry seasons; but the term "dry season" must not be understood in the same sense as when applied to the climate of Hindostan; for during its continuance, even three successive days rarely pass without a shower. On the west coast the dry season comes in with the S.W. monsoon in May; the wet season with the N.E. monsoon in October. The whole Peninsula is alternately protected from both monsoons by its own mountain range, and by the more elevated chain of Sumatra, with the exception of its eastern side, and even this is exposed only to the N.E. monsoon. Everywhere else, and at all seasons, land and sea breezes, calms and variable winds prevail, interrupted at intervals by occasional squalls from the south-west, known to mariners, from the direction from which they blow, as "Sumatras." Generally speaking, the climate, notwithstanding its heat and moisture, is not unhealthy, although a few ill-ventilated and malarious spots occur here and there.

Agriculture, Productions, Trade, &c.

Vegetable products.

Vegetable products are both numerous and valuable. They include a host of trees, the timber of which is adapted for house and ship building, the gutta-percha and india-rubber plants, bamboos, canes, and rattans, of which the jungles are in great part composed; the cocoa-nut, sago, areca and other palms; the finest fruits of tropical climates, such as the durian, mangosteen, pine-apple, &c.; tobacco, sugar, cotton, indigo and various spices have been introduced and are found to thrive well. Rice and other kinds of grain are not grown in quantities sufficient for home consumption, and are therefore imported chiefly from Bengal and Sumatra.

Animals.

Elephants roam over the Peninsula in great numbers, and in the northern parts are used as beasts of burden. The hog is found both in the wild and domestic state and constitutes the chief food of the nomadic races of the interior, as no doubt it did also of the Malays before their conversion to Mahomedanism. Horses are very rarely met with, and other animals of the equine family are unknown, the country, covered as it is with forest and marsh, being eminently unsuited to them. The buffalo attains its greatest

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size in the Peninsula, being much larger than that of Continental India. The domestic ox is a short-legged, compact, strong, and hardy animal; the sheep is known only as a partly acclimatized stranger.

Among the wild animals are the rhinoceros, tapir, the royal and the spotted black tiger, two kinds of bear, and two species of bison, the axis, plandok, musk-deer, and several other kinds of deer, the vampire and many varieties of bats, and numerous monkeys.

The only poultry of the Peninsula, in so far as the Malays are concerned, is the common fowl and duck. The feathered game consists of peacocks, three species of pheasant, partridges, pigeons, snipe, quail, ducks, teal, &c. Parrots and birds of prey are numerous.

Crocodiles, alligators, lizards, iguanas, and several kinds of formidable serpents are met with.

The dugong, many turtles, and a plentiful supply of fine fish are caught in the surrounding seas.

Trade. The articles of export from the native states are—tin, gold-dust, spices, ivory, pepper, sago, rattans, gutta-percha and india-rubber, timber, hogs, poultry, buffaloes, and various vegetable products; in return for which, opium, rice, cotton, tobacco, salt, and some European manufactures are imported.

Inhabitants.

The inhabitants of the Peninsula are principally Malays, Chinese, and natives of India.

The country is for the most part very thinly populated, the total number of inhabitants being estimated at about 670,000 only, more than half of whom are to be found in the British settlements of Singapore, Penang, and Malacca.

Malays. The most considerable part of the population consists of Malays, of whom there are supposed to be some 370,000. Their precise origin is very doubtful, but they are generally believed to be for the most part descendants of a body of colonists who, in the twelfth century, emigrated from Menangkabau in Sumatra, and who gradually extended their settlements throughout the Peninsula, driving back the original inhabitants to the high forest land of the interior.

The Malay physique is of a fairly high order; the men are short, being on an average about five feet three inches in height, but they are well-proportioned and active, with strong limbs, small hands and feet, and good countenances. In disposition the Malays are proud and revengeful, never forgetting an injury, and it was probably on this account that early travellers described them as treacherous. They are so only, however, with strangers who do not understand how to treat them and with enemies; in their domestic and social intercourse they are far from being a deceitful

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people, and they are capable of attachment and fidelity. They are neither avaricious nor rapacious, but are tenacious of their rights; they have a strong clanish spirit and will do anything for their chiefs. In external deportment they are grave, reserved, and cautious; they are always courteous in manner, and with those who understand their ways and treat them accordingly they are very friendly, but they resent anything like rudeness or violent behaviour; abuse or angry language will sting them to the quick, and they require very different treatment from the Chinese or natives of India. The Dutch compare them to buffaloes, both being slow but, with kind treatment, docile.

They are much attached to their homes and seldom move from their native place. Their principal occupations are agriculture and fishing; they seldom become traders. Having no artificial wants, they are satisfied with what would be considered positive destitution by a Chinaman; they are therefore apathetic and unenterprising, and will not for any amount offered to them labour beyond their usual habit. A propensity to gambling, and more especially a taste for cock-fighting are distinguishing traits in the Malay character.

The chiefs and headmen are great adepts in the art of dissimulation, and rarely show by their features what is passing in their minds. Intrigue is the business of their lives. In dealing with them it is necessary to be firm and watchful, but at the same time conciliatory in manner. Care should be taken to keep to the point, and to dispose of objections one by one, so as to leave no doubt in their minds of the speaker's determination.

"The Malays," writes Newbold, "are despicable as an enemy in open ground, or at close quarters (except the rare Amok), seldom or never exposing their persons without the protection of a breastwork, or of trees. Their plan is one of incessantly harassing the line of communication, stockading and retreating: the best,' in fact, they could adopt in a country covered with forest, and where every tree is a stronghold, and every road a defile." The Dutch war in Acheen, and our own operations in the Malay Peninsula, however, have shown that the Malays are not altogether the despicable enemies Newbold would have us believe. They have a wholesome dread of guns and rockets, but as long as only rifles are brought against them they will hold their ground. They generally desert their villages on the approach of troops, taking to the jungle and seeking a favourable opportunity for surprising isolated parties. Trees are felled to block up paths, and important points are defended by stockades, about which are planted "ranjows," or pointed bamboos. The stockades are cleverly constructed, so as to afford thorough shelter to their occupants, while the density of the jungle in which they are placed conceals them from distant view, and renders an advance slow and hazardous. On several occasions, as at Paroe, in Sungei Ujong, and at Pasir Salak, in Perak, during the late disturbances, serious loss has been suffered

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by European troops, who, too eager to attack, have been exposed to the fire of the defenders at close quarters. In the former case it was only the tardy arrival of a gun (which had been left behind half way) that saved the troops and enabled them to take the stockade: in the latter no guns were taken, and the consequence was that, after suffering heavy loss, the troops had to fall back. After this repulse a strong force was collected, guns and rockets were brought up, and a brisk fire sufficed to drive the enemy from their position without inflicting any further damage on our troops. The Malays were as quickly disheartened by the display of our power on the second occasion as they had been encouraged by their unexpected success in the first, and fell rapidly into despondency, declining all further encounter, even behind their stockades. In the various risings which have taken place, nothing like a concerted plan seems to have been organized, each chief who was determined to fight having collected as many of his own men as possible and acted independently. Spies and guides belonging to the country cannot be depended upon, but there are generally settlers of another tribe or native state acquainted with the country who can be safely employed.

The government of the Malay States is a rude kind of monarchy, the head of the State being a Rajah or Sultan, under whom, but often to a great extent independent, are a number of hereditary nobles with trains of vassals.

Chinese. The Chinese form the bulk of the population of the towns of Singapore and Penang, and of the State of Johore: they are also increasing in numbers in the other parts of the Peninsula, as the country becomes opened up. It is calculated that there are about 142,000 of this race in the British Settlements, 40,000 in Johore, and 62,000 in the other native States. For remarks on the character, pursuits, &c., of the Chinese settlers, see Singapore, Sec. I, page 58.

Natives of India. The natives of India, who are chiefly from the Madras coast, are reckoned at 51,000. Of these 46,000 are to be found in the British Possessions, the remainder being scattered over the various native States. For description, see Singapore, Sec. I, page 60.

Aborigines. The mountains of the interior are thinly peopled by the descendants of the original inhabitants of the Peninsula, who are called by the Malays *Orang Benua*, or men of the soil. They appear to be a distinct variety of the negro tribe, differing from, and being inferior to, both the African and Papuan negro. The average height of the men is only 4 feet 8 inches. They are of a much lower grade in the scale of civilization than the Malays, but are said to be harmless and docile. They are divided into several tribes, and are spread over a considerable extent of territory, but probably amount in all only to a few thousands.

As before mentioned, the Peninsula is divided into British Settlements and native States, which will now be separately described.

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BRITISH POSSESSIONS.

The British Settlements in the Malay Peninsula are:—

SINGAPORE,

PENANG AND PROVINCE WELLESLEY,

MALACCA, and

THE DINDINGS;

Which, together, form the Colony known as the "STRAITS SETTLEMENTS."

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SINGAPORE.

Section A.—GEOGRAPHY.

POSITION.—EXTENT.—BOUNDARIES.—OLD STRAIT.—NEW STRAIT.—SINKI STRAIT.—NATURE OF SURFACE.—MOUNTAINS.—VALLEYS.—RIVERS.—GEOLOGY.—PHYSICAL ASPECT.—SETTLEMENTS.—SUB-DIVISIONS.

Position. Singapore is the most northerly of the large islands of the almost countless group which lies scattered over the eastern end of the Straits of Malacca.

The Island, which is also called Singapura (from the Sanskrit *Singa*, lion, and *Pura*, city), occupies about half the space between the two capes, Buru, or Bolus, and Romania, in which the Malay Peninsula terminates towards the south. On its southern side are the town and harbour of the same name, the former being situated in lat. 1° 16′ N., and long. 103° 53′ E.

Extent. The Island is of an elliptical form, and measures about 25 miles in length from east to west, by 14 miles in depth from north to south. Associated with it there are also 75 small detached islets, none of any consequence, and most of them uninhabited, the whole within a circumference of about 100 miles. The area of Singapore proper is 132,430 acres, and that of the surrounding islands 11,517 acres, making a total of 143,947 acres.

Boundaries. On the north-east and north-west the Island is separated from the territory of Johore, on the Malay Peninsula, by a narrow channel called Sâlat Tambran (Strait of the Tambran Fish), or "Old Strait;" on the south it is bounded by the Strait of Singapore, or "New Strait."

The "Old Strait" is navigable by vessels of large tonnage, and was formerly the chief passage to the China Seas from the Bay of Bengal, but has long been abandoned as such.

The great thoroughfare of Indian, European, and Chinese traffic now passes along the south side of Singapore, between it and a chain of desert islands about 9 miles distant; the safest and most convenient track being so near to Singapore that ships, in passing and re-passing, approach close to the roads.

Important situation. Situated in this favourable position, and possessing a large and secure harbour, Singapore is admirably adapted, both as a central depôt for trade and as a naval station, for the protection of

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commerce. It is to its geographical situation rather than to any intrinsic qualities of its own that the settlement is indebted for its rapid rise and growing importance.

The old Strait.

The Old Strait* has an average width of three-quarters of a mile, but is in many places less than half a mile across. At its eastern entrance it is divided by Ubin Island into two channels, the southernmost of which is the best. The narrow and tortuous nature of the Strait, and the numerous reefs and islets which abound in it, especially on the Singapore side, render its navigation difficult, and, as before mentioned, it is no longer used by vessels.

New Strait.

The New Strait, or Singapore Strait† proper, may be said to commence on the west at Tree Island, where the channel becomes narrow: thence it extends for about 50 miles to Pedra Branca, at its eastern entrance, where there is a good lighthouse. On the north it has the Island of Singapore and the Malay Peninsula, and on the south the Islands of the Boelang Archipelago, Battam, and Bintang, besides numerous small islands and banks near its western entrance. In addition to these great landmarks, the boundaries of the New Strait are—on the north, Sultan Shoal, Barn Island, Alligator Island, Rabbit Island, Coney Island (light-house), Middle Island, and St. John's Islands; and on the south, Tree Island, Kent Rocks, Red Island, Long Island, Round Island, Buffalo Rock, and Pulau Blakan Padang.

Sinki Strait.

Another channel, called Sinki Strait, branches off from the main strait at the Sultan Shoal, and, passing to the south of the Cyrene Shoals, leads into the new harbour.

Nature of surface.

The surface of the Island is very undulating, consisting of a succession of low, rounded hills, averaging about 100 feet in height, and covered with jungle, between which are swampy valleys. There are but two plains of any extent, and these of not more than two square miles.

Mountains.

The highest point of the island is Bukit Timah, which is situated about the centre of the island, though nearer the south than the north, and nearer the west than the east: it is about 519 feet high. There are, besides, three or four eminences which attain the height of 300 feet, such as Mount Faber in the western part of the island, Bukit Parajang and Bukit Ulu Mandai; but the general height of the ridges or elevations does not exceed 80 to 120 feet. These are undulating and sloping in the eastern part of the island, while in the western part they are more prominent and uneven, following the character of their respective geological formations.

The island is intersected by parallel ridges, which run in a north-westerly and south-easterly direction, with the exception of such as lie in the north-eastern portion of the island, and these run from north-east to south-west. They nowhere lose their continuity, but can be traced from one shore of the island to the

* See Admiralty Charts 1,734 and 2,403.
† See Admiralty Charts 2,403, 2,404.

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other. A central ridge, which may be termed the backbone of the island, can be traced running nearly due east and west from Karang Campong to Tanjong Changi, dividing it longitudinally into nearly equal parts, and forming the watershed from which the streams run north and south. The Kâlang, the largest river in the island, is an exception to this rule: it rises considerably to the north of the general bisecting line, and flows to the southward. From the central range of heights all the other ridges take their departure in a north-westerly and south-easterly direction with the exception above noted.

Valleys. Narrow swampy valleys penetrate between the spurs and offshoots of the main ridges. Their beds seldom attain an elevation of more than 15 to 20 feet above the level of the sea, of which they had originally formed arms and inlets. The sponginess of the decayed vegetation on their surfaces, combined with their flatness, assists much in retaining the moisture brought by the rains, thus preventing great floods or droughts. The supply of water is consequently equal and abundant throughout the year. Springs are numerous.

On the south coast, for a distance of 3 miles inland, there are long belts of sand or "permatangs," indicating that the sea has receded very much from the orignal coast line.

Rivers. The rivers are the Singapore and Kâlang, which fall into the harbour; the Jurong on the south-west coast; the Sirambun, Kranji, Mandi, Sambauang, Selêtar, Punggol, Sirangun and Tampinis, which flow into the Old Strait; and some other small streams. They may all be termed tidal creeks rather than rivers, and only the Singapore, Sirangun, Kâlang, Selêtar, Kranji and Jurong drain any considerable tract of the island.

Geology. The geological structure of Singapore is similar to that of the Peninsula generally. In the north and east the prevailing formation is plutonic, consisting of granite and its modifications; but the greater part of the island is of sedimentary formation, viz., sandstones, breccias, and slate, with clay iron ore. Laterite occurs in seams of varying thickness.

Some portions of the island, as that which is the site of the town, are of alluvial formation: chiefly sand, with a very thin covering of vegetable mould. Near the shore these sandy plains are raised from 4 to 8 feet above the level of high water spring tides; but as they recede from the shore they decrease in height, and as they approach the hills are succeeded by soil composed of red tenacious clays and blue mud.

Physical aspect. The shores of the island present an aspect always beautiful and sometimes imposing. They are for the most part low and covered with luxuriant jungle; but in some places along the Old Strait are broken by brown rocky cliffs, and on the side facing the shipping a long sandy beach extends for about 14 miles

The inland scenery also is very picturesque. The town extends in few points more than a mile from the beach, but within a

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radius of 4 miles are numerous dwelling houses, inhabited by the European residents, generally crowning the summits of the low rounded hills which are such a marked peculiarity of the island. Beyond the 4-mile radius, where the residences may be said to end, many hundreds of acres have been cleared, originally for nutmeg plantations. Beyond these again, though separated from them by a belt of jungle more or less broad, come the pepper and gambier plantations, which are scattered all over the island, but most frequently to be found in retired spots in the midst of the jungle. This jungle in the back lands of Singapore consists of a forest of gigantic trees standing close together, their trunks varying in diameter from 2 to 6 feet. Beneath these again come the wild fruit trees and dense undergrowth of the tropics, the whole mass being literally woven together in the most extraordinary manner by a network of creepers and parasites. Besides these obstructions, which of themselves nearly render the jungle impenetrable, there are the fallen trees of bygone ages piled one on top of the other, or lying side by side in every stage of decay.

Settlements.

The capital is the only town in the island, but numerous plantations and small settlements exist all over it, as well as a few small fishing stations along the coast. There are also two government bungalows, one at Selita on the north of the island where there is a stream of good water, and the other at Changi, on a pretty little sandy bay near the eastern entrance of the Old Strait, where there is also a police station.

Sub-divisions

For the convenience of the Land and Survey Departments, the island is subdivided into thirty districts.

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Section B.—HARBOURS AND ROADSTEADS.

SINGAPORE NEW HARBOUR.—ITS SITUATION AND EXTENT, DEFECTS, NATURAL ADVANTAGES, ROCKS AND SHOALS, TIDES, CHARTS, WHARVES AND DOCKS.—SINGAPORE ROADS—SITUATION AND EXTENT, ANCHORAGE, CHARTS, TIDES, SURF, SHIPPING, PREVAILING WINDS.

The Port of Singapore is now the principal station for steamers in the Eastern Seas, and there is an active navigation between it and most parts of the civilized world, in addition to the native trade from every corner of the Archipelago. It may be said to consist of two parts, namely:—The New Harbour, and the Roads, or Old Harbour.

SINGAPORE NEW HARBOUR.

Situation and extent.

New Harbour, the name given to the channel between Singapore on the north and the islands of Blakan Mati and Ayer Brani on the south, is about $2\frac{3}{4}$ miles long, and has a general direction of east and west, but the main channel takes a somewhat serpentine course. The breadth of the channel is not more than $1\frac{1}{2}$ cables in several places. The average depth of water is 7 fathoms. The western entrance, which is little more than one cable wide, lies between Riman Point (the north-west extremity of Blakan Mati Island) and Berlayer Point (the south extremity of Singapore Island). The eastern entrance is bounded on the north by the Malay and Pagar Spits, and on the south by Buran Darat Reef, and the reefs surrounding the eastern sides of Blakan Mati and Ayer Brani Islands.

Defects as an anchorage.

As an anchorage New Harbour is very indifferent, for the breadth of the navigable channel is only from 100 to 200 yards; the bottom is rocky and foul, and affords but bad holding ground, whilst the tides run through it with great velocity; there is, from these circumstances, great risk of vessels dragging their anchors and going ashore. There is only one place where a ship can lie moored without obstructing the fairway, viz.:—between the naval coal sheds and the Meander Shoal.

Natural advantages.

Notwithstanding these serious drawbacks, New Harbour has grown into a place of considerable importance, for it possesses facilities for constructing jetties and making docks which render it of the highest possible value to a large shipping port like Singapore, situated in the very centre of Eastern commerce. The Peninsular and Oriental Company, together with other steam

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proprietors and merchants, have erected extensive coal stores, wharves, and jetties, the latter allowing of the largest steam vessels being lashed alongside in perfect security. The New Harbour is the place of arrival and departure of the mail steam vessels, and all other steam vessels, no matter how large, proceed here to coal.

Both sides of the harbour are fringed with reefs which dry at low water, but close to their edges are depths of $3\frac{1}{4}$ to $4\frac{1}{4}$ fathoms increasing suddenly to 5 and 6 fathoms, and to this circumstance New Harbour owes its importance. The deep water at the edges of the reefs allowing the largest vessels to come alongside, it is but a simple matter to construct jetties to secure the vessel to. These jetties, of course, greatly facilitate the coaling of steam vessels and landing of cargo, which, at the anchorage in the roads, can only be done by means of boats.

Rocks and Shoals.

At the eastern entrance to the harbour are the Timbaga Rocks and Shoal, the former visible at low water springs. Due south of them are the Brani Shoals, which extend for about half-a-mile in a N.W. by W. and S.E. by E. direction. The least water upon these shoals is 10 feet. The navigable width of this part of the harbour is thus divided into three parts, called the North, Middle, and South Channels. Near the centre of the harbour and on the south side of the main channel is the Meander Shoal, with from 6 to 16 feet of water over it.

Tides.

At the full and change of the moon the tides are strong, averaging about $3\frac{1}{2}$ knots an hour and rising 9 or 10 feet; during the neaps there is not more than one knot, with a rise of $7\frac{1}{2}$ feet. The tides run regularly every six hours, flowing from the east and ebbing from the west, except during the N.E. monsoon (from October to March), when the flood runs for days together, backing the ebb.

There is no surf whatever, but during the N.E. monsoon a swell from the eastward sets in. It is only felt in the eastern part of the harbour and causes little or no inconvenience.

Charts.

The Admiralty Chart of Singapore New Harbour (No. 2023) is on a scale of $\frac{1}{3960}$, and is corrected up to 1878.

Wharves and docks.

Along the northern shore of the New Harbour there are a succession of wharves, docks, coaling depôts, and fitting establishments. The mail steamers do not now come into the roadstead, but land their passengers and cargo at the wharves in the New Harbour, from which a good road leads to the town, some two or three miles distant.

Immediately inside the eastern entrance are the Tanjong Pagar Works, consisting of a wharf capable of berthing a dozen vessels at a time out of the action of the tide, and having sufficient water alongside for the heaviest ships; a dock, 450 feet in length, 65 feet wide at the entrance, and 20 feet deep; a large machine shop, having the appliances necessary for effecting the heaviest repairs to steamers and iron vessels; extensive coal sheds, capable of containing 30,000 tons; and commodious warehouses.

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Opposite Pulo Brani, and at the foot of the Mount Faber range, are the wharves of the Borneo Company, Jardine's Company, and the Peninsular and Oriental Company. The total length of these wharves is about 600 yards.

Still further to the westward, and near the western entrance to the harbour, are the wharves, docks, fitting shops, and coal sheds of the New Harbour Dock Company. Here are two docks, 415 feet and 459 feet long respectively; whilst the wharves will accommodate five or six vessels.

These wharves, docks, and machine shops are now constantly made use of by the Dutch ships of war, which are sent here from Acheen to repair and refit; and may, of course, also be used by vessels of the Royal Navy.

On the northern side of the Island of Pulo Brani are the Naval Coal Stores, capable of containing 8,000 tons; and on the southern side is a small dock (closed in 1877).

On the east side of Hantu Island is a ship yard, with a patent slip for vessels under 200 tons.

The total amount of coal kept at Singapore is estimated at 300,000 tons.

Singapore Roads.

Situation and extent. Singapore Roads are on the southern side of Singapore Island, facing the town, their limit being defined by a line drawn from the obelisk on Tanjong Katong, to the south-east extremity of Peak Island. They may be considered to have a sea frontage of 5 miles, extending in a N.N.E. and S.S.W. direction, with a depth of about 2 miles. They are quite safe from all winds, and free from rocks.

Shoals. A mud-bank, with general depths of 10 to 4 fathoms over it, called the "Outer Shoal," extends across the outer roads, from St. John Islands to abreast of Tanjong Katong, where it takes the direction of and fronts the coast some distance to the north-eastward. Its length is about 3,000 yards, and its breadth about 450 yards.

Anchorage. The holding ground is good, being a mixture of clay, mud, and sand. A large number of vessels are always to be found anchored in the roads, and small vessels may run in, guided by their soundings, and anchor when they can find a convenient berth. The most convenient anchorage for large vessels is about $1\frac{1}{2}$ mile from the landing place, in from 7 to 10 fathoms water.

Charts. The Admiralty Chart of Singapore Roads (No. 1,995) is on a scale of $\frac{1}{12100}$, corrected up to 1880.

Tides. The tides run from 2 to $2\frac{1}{4}$ knots an hour in the outer anchorage, and set in an easterly and westerly direction (flood from east and ebb from west); but towards the shore there is little or no tide. The rise and fall during the springs is as much as 13 feet; during the neaps, only $7\frac{1}{2}$ feet.

Surf. There is no surf, but during the N.E. monsoon (from October to March) a heavy swell sets in from the China Sea, which, how-

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ever, seldom prevents the licensed Harbour Passenger Boats from plying for hire.

Shipping. The shipping that rides in the roadstead of Singapore comprises almost every conceivable variety of vessel, from the finest productions of English building yards to the smallest native coasters. There is scarcely any time during the year when there are less than a dozen steam vessels in the port, and not unfrequently there are twice that number. Of these, not a few are war vessels, of various nations, but the greater number belong to various trading companies (*see* Sec. C, page 23; Sec. H, page 43). It is not, however, so much for the character of the foreign merchantmen that the Harbour of Singapore is chiefly remarkable: it is rather for the extraordinary variety of nondescript native craft that swarm in its shoaler waters.

Most peculiar and most striking of all are the Chinese junks, some of which are as large as 600 or 700 tons measurement. The majority are much smaller, but it is singular that in form, and generally in rig, all are nearly similar. Indeed, the very sampans, or two-oared China boats, used to convey passengers and luggage to and from the ships and the shore are identical in shape. All have alike the square bow and broad flat stern. About the months of March and April the greatest number of these junks are to be seen. They come down from China towards the close of the N.E. monsoon and remain until the opposite or S.W. monsoon sets in to enable them to return. During these two months as many as 50 large junks, besides innumerable smaller ones, lie at anchor in the eastern corner of the harbour. Although clumsy-looking vessels they no doubt possess some good qualities, and probably speed, with a fair wind in a smooth sea, is one of them.

Next to these Chinese junks the Malay prahus are the most interesting of the native craft to be found in the harbour. Though slightly similar in shape, these are never so large as the Chinese junks, seldom being over 50 or 60 tons burden. They have only one mast, or tripod of three large bamboos lashed together at the top, with a large single sail something like an English lug sail, generally made of coarse grass cloth.

In addition to the ships and native craft that lie crowded together in the harbour, there are hundreds of small boats of all descriptions constantly pulling about, selling fruit, provisions, &c.

Landing place. The chief landing place is at the entrance of the small river which divides the town close to Fort Fullerton, westward from which a fine stone sea-wall has been constructed. There are also landing steps at different points of the river inside the bar, as well as in many places along the shores of both harbours. The river, too, is literally alive with boats of all kinds—Chinamen with their "shoe boats," Malays with their "sampans," and Klings with their "tongkangs." The first two sorts are used for the conveyance of passengers and their luggage; the last, which are far more numerous, are employed in bringing up and down the river the cargoes of

Boats.

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ships in the harbour; they contain from 20 to 30 tons each, and so numerous are they that they generally lie three or four abreast along the entire western bank of the river as far as Elgin Bridge, a distance of a quarter of a mile. In round numbers there are never less than about 500 of these small craft to be seen in this first reach of the river; so that, independently of the wharves and piers, the disembarkation of both men and matériel might be rapidly effected to almost any extent.

Prevailing winds.

The strongest and most prevalent winds are from W.N.W. to N.E., but, as already mentioned, both the harbours are perfectly safe all the year round.

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Section C.—COMMUNICATIONS.

ROADS.—RIVERS.—RAILWAYS.—TELEGRAPHS.—MAIL SERVICES.—RETURN OF TRANSPORT ANIMALS.—RETURN OF VEHICLES.

ROADS.

Main roads.

The main internal roads are metalled, and have a width of 18 feet.

Besides those in the vicinity of the town, and connecting it with the New Harbour, there are four great lines of communication radiating from Singapore. These roads, after leaving the outskirts of the town, run across the tracts cleared for the old nutmeg plantations, and then through the pepper and gambier plantations, which occupy the greater part of the centre and northern half of the island, until they terminate at various points on the coast.

The first of these roads runs in a N.W. direction past the foot of Bukit Timah, and through the Chinese village of Bokokang, to the shore of the Old Strait near the mouth of the Kranji stream, whence there is a ferry over the strait to Johore. The road is 14 miles long; six omnibuses travel over it daily.

A second road leads nearly straight across the island to the Government bungalow at Selita (Selêtar), passing by the eastern foot of Bukit Kallang through some of the wildest jungle in the whole island. The bungalow, which is about nine miles from Singapore in a direct line, is beautifully situated; in the neigbourhood are a small native village and a police station.

A third road crosses the Rochore and Kallang districts, running in a north-easterly direction to the Sirangun river, which flows into the Old Strait.

The fourth road borders the south-eastern coast and leads to the Government Convalescent bungalow of Changi, situated on a beautiful little sandy bay at the N.E. extremity of the island, distant about 14 miles from the town. There are also here a native village and a police station. Towards its eastern extremity the road runs through considerable tracts of jungle; several branches from it give access to the villages along the coast, Siglap perhaps being the chief.

RIVERS.

The Singapore River, which passes through the heart of the town, is navigable by boats for about two miles. It is very

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narrow at its mouth, but the banks expand to form a large elliptical basin about 150 yards in maximum width, gradually closing again till, at a quarter of a mile up, the river is even narrower than at its mouth. Here it is crossed by an iron girder bridge, named after the late Lord Elgin. This basin is usually crowded by boats of all sorts, conveying cargo to and from the vessels in the roadstead. There are landing places at many points along its banks.

Above Elgin Bridge the river has a uniform breadth of about 200 feet, and as it feeds all the mangrove swamps in the suburbs of the town, many houses entirely removed from the course of the river itself have, at high water, the advantage of water communication with the sea; and timber and building material are in this way often conveyed well up into the country where they are required for use. The traffic above Elgin Bridge is, however, very insignificant.

Large numbers of boats and several steam launches could be procured here, should it become necessary to use them on the rivers of the Peninsula.

None of the other rivers are navigable, even by boats, beyond the salt creeks which form their mouths.

Railways.

There are no railways in the island; but a line is much wanted to connect the town with the New Harbour and with Johore.

Telegraphs.

Singapore is an important station on the line of telegraphic communication between India, China, and Australia. From it submarine cables run as under:—

1. Singapore—Malacca, Penang, Madras.
2. Singapore—Penang, Rangoon, thence overland to Calcutta.
3. Singapore—Saigon (Cochin China), Hong Kong, Shanghai, Nagasaki, Vladivostock, thence overland to Europe.
4. Singapore—Batavia, Palmerston (Australia).
5. Singapore—Palmerston.

There is thus telegraphic communication to Europe either through India or by Hong Kong.

There are local lines connecting the Government House with the offices, and with the head quarters of the military; also from the town to the New Harbour.

Mail Services.

Communication is maintained between Singapore and—

England.—By weekly mail steamers, alternately of the Peninsular and Oriental Company, which call at Penang, and of the Messagéries Maritimes: contract time by the Messagéries

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Maritimes, *viâ* Marseilles, 30 days; by the Peninsular and Oriental Company's steamers, 35 days via Penang and Ceylon.

Ceylon.—By the Peninsular and Oriental and Messagéries mail steamers weekly: time by the Messagéries Maritimes, 5 to 6 days; by the Peninsular and Oriental Company's steamers, 6 to 7 days via Penang.

Calcutta.—By the opium steamers once a month: time about 6 days from Penang; and by fornightly contract steamers (the British India Company), time about 13 days from Penang, touching at Rangoon and other places.

Batavia.—Weekly mails by the steamers of the Messagéries Maritimes and Netherlands India Company; also frequent communication by other steamers: time about 3 days.

Hong-Kong.—By the Peninsular and Oriental and Messagéries mail steamers weekly, and by frequent trading steamers: time 6 to 9 days, according to the monsoon.

Australia.—To Brisbane and Sydney, *viâ* Torres Straits, by the steamers of the British India Company, monthly: time to Brisbane, 20 days. By Peninsular and Oriental Company's steamers to Melbourne, *viâ* Galle, bi-monthly: time 27 to 30 days.

Penang.—Local steamers five times a week, and Peninsular and Oriental Company twice a month: time 2 days.

Malacca.—Local steamers weekly.

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Straits Settlements.—Return of Transport Animals.

Animals.	Average size.	Price at ordnary times.	Rate of hire at ordinary times.	Usual weight carried, and mode of loading.	Average distance per day.	For employment in the country.		For employment out of the country.	
						Places of collection for movement inland.	Number procurable.	Ports of embarkation.	Number procurable.
Horses	15 hands.	£30 to £40.	4s. or 4s. 6d. per diem.	Only used for draught.	15 miles.	In the several towns of the colony.	About 80.	Singapore.	About 50.
Ponies.....	11½ hands.	£20 to £30.	3s. per diem.	Do.	10 miles.	Do.	In Singapore ... 600 In Penang and Province Wellesley ... 500 In Malacca ... 80	Singapore. Penang. Malacca.	Between 200 and 300.
Oxen	13 hands.	£10 to £15.	1s. 3d. per diem.	Do.	10 miles.	Do.	In Singapore ...1500 In Penang and Province Wellesley ...1400 In Malacca ... 400	Do.	About 2000.
Buffaloes ...	14 hands.	£7 to £10.	1s. 3d. per diem.	Do.	10 miles.	Do.	In Penang and Province Wellesley ... 800 In Malacca ... 400	Do.	About 500.

Remarks.

Horses can only be obtained for hire in Singapore. In Penang and Malacca there are very few, and they are used by residents for private purposes only.

Ponies are only used for driving in gharries. They are strong, hardy animals, and generally free from vice.

Oxen are slow, but very enduring when managed by natives who understand them.

Buffaloes are vicious, and can only be managed by natives. The owners, who are chiefly Malays, are very unwilling to sell them. They require much water.

There are no local fairs or markets for the sale of horses, ponies, oxen, or buffaloes.

There are no local laws prohibiting the sale or export of animals or service of drivers, nor are there any taxes on export.

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Straits Settlements.—Return of Vehicles.

Vehicles in ordinary use for passenger and goods traffic.	General description of vehicle.	Number of wheels.	Width (over all).	Mode of traction.	Number and kind of animals.	With or without springs.	Average capacity.	Average weight carried.	Number procurable.
Gharries—The common hackney carriage of the colony.	A vehicle something like an ordinary London cab of a very light make.	4	5 feet.	Shafts.	1 pony.	With springs.	50 cubic feet: will accommodate 4 persons in addition to the driver.	Only used for passenger traffic.	About 1500.
Province Gharries ...	A light gig with cover. A modification of the 4-wheeled gharry.	2	5 ft. 6 in. in Province Wellesley; 5 ft. in Malacca.	Do.	Do.	Do.	30 cubic feet: will accommodate 2 persons in addition to the driver.	Do.	About 350.
Bullock carts	Cart, with or without sides, covered with a light movable roof made from the leaf of a palm.	2	5 ft. 6 in.	Pole.	2 oxen.	Without springs.	70 cubic feet.	Half a ton.	About 2000.
Buffalo carts	Similar to the bullock carts, but a little longer.	2	6 feet.	Shafts.	1 buffalo.	Do.	90 cubic feet.	12 cwt.	About 300.
Omnibuses.....	Light covered vans.	4	6 feet.	Pole.	2 horses.	With springs.	120 cubic feet: will accommodate 14 persons.	Only used for passenger traffic.	About 20.

Remarks.

Gharries with 4 wheels are used principally in Singapore and Penang. Hire by the day for carriage, pony and driver, 6*s.* 6*d.* Cost price, £20 to £25 for carriage; pony, £35 to £40. Can be driven 10 miles a day.

Province gharries are used in Province Wellesley and on the country roads in Malacca. Cost from £10 to £15. Hire by the day, 5*s.*

Bullock carts cost £10 to £15. Hire by the day from 2*s.* to 3*s.* Oxen are slow; about 10 to 12 miles a day can be done by them.

Buffalo carts are only used in Province Wellesley and Malacca. Hire, about 2*s.* 6*d.* per diem. Buffaloes are very slow, useless in a hilly country; only employed on good level roads, where plenty of water can be obtained.

Omnibuses are only used in Singapore. They can be hired by trip or day.

In Malacca and Province Wellesley, bullock carts of a better description than those described above are used by the owners for conveying themselves and families. They are few in number—about 50.

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Section D.—TOWNS.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.—STREETS.—CHINESE DIVISION.—BRIDGES.—EUROPEAN DIVISION.—MALAY DIVISION.—SUBURBS.—WATER SUPPLY.—SITE AND DRAINAGE.—INDUSTRIES.—INHABITANTS.—MUNICIPAL INSTITUTIONS.

Situation.

The town of Singapore is situated near the southern extremity of the island, on a narrow strip of low ground fronting the roadstead or Old Harbour. It stands on both banks of the Singapore River, from which it stretches southward for about a mile, and northward for about a mile and a half, to a small creek called the Rochor. A range of hills about 100 to 120 feet high, distant from the beach from about a third of a mile to a mile, forms its landward limit.

Area.

The area of the town proper is about 1,700 acres, but hamlets are springing up at New Harbour on the south-west, and beyond Kampong Glam on the east, and to these the town is gradually extending.

Streets.

The streets are wide and generally at right angles to one another. The main thoroughfare is that called at various portions of its length North Bridge Road and South Bridge Road, which runs parallel to the beach and about a quarter of a mile from it.

The town may be said to consist of three distinct divisions—the southern being principally inhabited by Chinese, the central and best part by Europeans, and the northern by the Malays.

Chinese division.

The part of the town which lies to the south of the Singapore River is the busiest and most thickly inhabited. It comprises the warehouses and places of business of the English merchants, as well as the dwellings and shops of the Chinese, the former being situated near the river and the sea front.

At the mouth of the river, on the southern bank stands Fort Fullerton, near which is the principal landing-place. About 200 yards from this is Commercial Square, which, ever since the Settlement rose into importance, has been the principal locality for European mercantile houses. It is built round a reserved piece of ground turfed over, and laid out with flowers and shrubs. The square itself is some 200 yards long by 50 broad, and many of the houses, or rather "godowns" (the latter term being used to denote mercantile establishments), which surround it, are of elegant design. They are built of brick and plastered over, two stories high, with heavy overhanging eaves. The lower part of their front walls is composed of a series of arches on pillars, inside of which an arcade runs, forming a footway for passengers. Here are situated the telegraph office, banks, &c.

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Until within the last few years the European business was mainly confined to this square, but a good deal of it has now been diverted to the sea frontage immediately in advance, where, upon land recently recovered from the sea, a terrace of godowns of a similar character has been built. In front of these a fine stone sea-wall has been constructed.

Along the southern bank of the river, from its mouth to Elgin bridge, a distance of a quarter of a mile, extends a range of godowns, those near the entrance belonging to Europeans, and those further up to Chinese. These buildings are all pretty much of the same character; but the Chinese division is the more imposing to the eye on account of the bright colours which adorn the walls. This range is called Boat Quay, from the fact that nearly the entire river frontage opposite to it is taken up with the loading and discharging of cargo boats. At various points along it are landing steps for passengers.

Beyond the European buildings are the shops and dwellings of the Chinese, stretching inland and along the beach, closely packed together in the interior of the town, but becoming gradually broken as they run southward, by patches of cocoa-nuts and fruit-trees, until Fort Palmer is reached, which marks the southern limit.

The buildings are of a uniform height and character. They are mostly two-storied, the walls of brick plastered over, and the roofs covered with tiles. The windows are generally of lattice woodwork, while verandahs underneath run the entire length of the streets, giving protection from rain and sun. The interiors are somewhat dirty and crowded.

The retail trades and manufactures of the town are chiefly engrossed by the Chinese, whose workshops and stores are mostly situated in the streets adjoining Commercial Square.

The principal building in this division of the town is a splendid pagoda of grotesque exterior.

Bridges. There are three permanent bridges over the Singapore River. The principal one is the Elgin bridge connecting the North and South Bridge Roads. It is formed of iron girders which were sent out from England. Though sustaining a constant stream of traffic, it is only some 18 feet wide. Higher up the river are two wooden bridges.

European division. The central, or European, portion of the town stands on the left bank of the river. This is the non-mercantile quarter. It is laid out in regular streets lined with substantial brick houses, and contains the principal public buildings, official residences, and hotels. The Esplanade, a broad belt of turf of about nine acres in area, extends for a quarter of a mile along the shore.

The principal public buildings are:—*Government House*, on a high hill to the west of the town, commanding a fine view; a magnificent structure surrounded by large and beautiful grounds. *The Courts of Justice, Town Hall, Council Chambers, Public Offices,*

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&c., situated in large and airy buildings near the mouth of the river. *The Cathedral*, lying to the west of the Esplanade, one of the largest and handsomest churches in the East. *The Raffles Institute*, near the Cathedral, a fine, square, massive clump of buildings founded by Sir Stamford Raffles in 1823, for the cultivation of the Chinese and Malay languages, &c. *New Custom House, American and Armenian Churches, Good Markets, A New Gaol* for 720 inmates in separate cells, on Pearl Hill, S.W. of the town. *Hospitals* at Sepoy Lines, $1\frac{1}{4}$ mile from the town, &c., &c., besides military buildings, which will be referred to under Section E.

Malay division. The northern portion of the town (designated the *Kampong Glam*), which is the oldest portion of Singapore, comprises the shops of the Klings and Malays, and is remarkable for its filth and squalor. Many of the houses in it are raised on posts above the level of the ground.

Suburbs. The higher classes of the European merchants, &c., generally live in bungalows, or garden houses, in the suburbs to the north and west of the town, or along the beach to the eastward, which commands fine views of the harbour and its entrances. These residences are all within a radius of four miles. Near the town, where ground is valuable, they are tolerably close together, with perhaps one or two acres of ground to each; those at a greater distance are further apart, generally crowning the summits of the little round hills, or "bukits" as they are termed by the Malays, which are such a marked peculiarity of the island. The bungalows are generally of brick, one storey high, some 90 or 100 feet long by 60 or 70 feet wide, the walls seldom less than 15 feet high, and the roof covered with tiles. A broad verandah with projecting eaves runs right round the house, from the centre of which is commonly built out a large portico and covered carriage way. The kitchens, stables, and servants' rooms are always built at some distance from the house, and connected with it by a covered passage, the whole being surrounded by well-kept gardens.

Water supply. The town has an abundant supply of good water, laid on upon European principles.

Nature of site. The town and suburbs are situated principally on alluvial soil, the greater part of which is sandy. From the mouth of the Singapore River to that of the Kâlang extends a low-lying sandy plain, which affords dry and healthy sites for the dwellings that front the beach. On the south bank of the Singapore River lies an extensive mud flat, in some places below high water mark, on which the most thickly populated part of the town has been built. Outside the town and bordering the roads leading into it are some mangrove swamps, which fill and empty with the rise and fall of the tide.

Drainage. Between the Singapore and Kâlang Rivers are two smaller streams, which have at their lower ends been converted into canals. Into these canals and into the Singapore River, which, for some

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distance from their termination are subject to tidal influences, the drains of the parts of the town through which they pass empty themselves.

Industries.

There are in the town rice and saw-mills, three foundries, many sago and tapioca manufactories, hide cleaning establishments, &c., &c.

The population of the town, according to the census taken in 1881 was 95,323, comprising 1,022 Europeans and Americans, 63,698 Chinese, 9,066 Malays, and 10,371 natives of India.

Municipal Institutions.

For the administration of the municipal revenues a Local Board is constituted, which consists of five Commissioners—two nominated by the Governor and three elected by the ratepayers. The municipal fund is primarily charged with the support of the police force, under an estimate fixed by the Governor, the balance remaining at the disposal of the Commissioners for the construction and repair of roads and bridges, for measures of sanitary reform, and other purposes of general improvement.

(For details of Municipal Revenue, *see* Section M., page 61).

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Section E.—FORTS, ARSENALS, STORES, BARRACKS, &c.

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Section F.—DOCKYARDS AND NAVAL ESTABLISHMENTS.

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Section G.—CLIMATE.

SEASONS AND WINDS.—RAINFALL.—TEMPERATURE.—CLIMATE.—PECULIAR PHENOMENA.—EFFECT OF CLIMATE ON VEGETATION.—EFFECT ON HEALTH.—STATISTICS AS TO HEALTH OF TROOPS.—STATISTICS AS TO HEALTH OF CIVIL EUROPEAN POPULATION.—SICKLY PERIODS.—SANITARY RULES AS TO CLOTHING, DIET, ETC.—SANITARIA, EXISTING AND POSSIBLE.—ABSTRACT OF METEOROLOGICAL OBSERVATIONS FOR 1881.

Seasons and winds.

Strictly speaking, there are no seasons in Singapore, as is commonly understood by the term in other latitudes. A perpetual summer exists throughout the year, varying only by a few degrees of temperature during the different months. There is barely thirty minutes difference in the hour of sunrise, which ranges from about a quarter past five to a quarter to six.

Singapore, though within 80 miles of the Equator, has an abundance of moisture, either deposited by the dews or by the gentle refreshing showers, which keep its atmosphere cool, prevent the parching effects of the sun, and promote continual verdure. It never experiences furious gales. If more than ordinary heat has accumulated moisture and electricity, a squall generally sets in, followed by a heavy shower of rain. The squalls come from the direction of the prevailing monsoon, and seldom exceed one or two hours in duration. The most severe and numerous are from the south-west, called "Sumatras," and they most frequently occur between one and five a.m. The north-east monsoon blows from November to March; after which, the wind veers round to the south-east, and gradually sets into the south-west, at which point it continues till September or October. Then follow calms, squalls, and occasional puffs from the south-west, more frequently from the north-west, until the wind, having gone round the compass, fixes itself in the north-east, or more generally between the north-east and east, from which point it blows steadily till the middle of March. After this there are again calms, winds from various directions, and squalls, but of less severity, lasting until the end of May, when the south-west monsoon sets pretty steadily in.

The north-east monsoon blows more steadily than the south-west, and with more force. It is further remarked that the wind lulls at night during the height of either monsoon. The temperature of Singapore is a few degrees cooler during the former than the latter, which also brings more rain; for these reasons, amongst others, it is reckoned healthier. During the south-west monsoon a wind from the south prevails at night, which is termed by the

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natives "anggin Jawa" (Java wind), because it comes from the direction of that island. It is most frequent in September, and is attributed to the usual cooling land breeze being replaced in the mornings during that month by the hotter breeze from the sea. It is not considered to be healthy.

As will be seen from the subjoined Abstract, the rainfall at Singapore is pretty regularly distributed throughout the year, The average number of rainy days is 180 per annum. Rainfall.

ANNUAL ABSTRACT OF RAINFALL for the Ten Years, 1869 to 1878.

Months.	Greatest Rainfall.	Least Rainfall.	Mean of Ten Years.
	Inches.	Inches.	Inches.
January	18·25 in 1870	2·37 in 1872	7·00
February..	9·57 in 1873	1·84 in 1876	6·02
March	16·92 in 1875	2·17 in 1878	6·45
April	10·54 in 1873	1·37 in 1877	6·72
May	11·59 in 1878	3·96 in 1871	6·21
June	11·51 in 1870	4·07 in 1878	7·46
July	12·42 in 1871	3·55 in 1873	6·00
August	19·33 in 1878	4·00 in 1877	9·52
September	12·62 in 1870	2·74 in 1877	7·27
October	12·36 in 1871	2·09 in 1877	7·67
November	16·37 in 1874	5·24 in 1877	10·87
December	20·66 in 1869	5·16 in 1873	10·47
		Total ..	91·66

The maximum annual rainfall during this period was 123·24 inches in 1870, and the minimum 58·37 inches in 1877. The greatest rainfall in 24 hours was 6·25 inches, in December, 1870.

The amount of rainfall varies at different points of the island. Thus, during the year 1881, 115·87 inches fell at the P. and O. Company's Depôt, New Harbour; 92·29 inches at the Hospital, Kandang Kerbau; and 82·18 inches at the Gaol Hospital, Bras Bâsah Road.

It will be seen from the tabular statement given below that the range of the thermometer in Singapore is very limited, only 13° on an average; the mean temperature being 80°. Range of thermometer

TABLE showing the Mean Readings of Self-registering Thermometers in the shade for a period of Ten Years.

	1869	1870	1871	1872	1873	1874	1875	1876	1877	1878	Mean of Ten Years.
	°F	°F	°F	°F	°F	°F	°F	°F	°F	°F	°F
Mean maximum	86·6	85·9	85·9	86·5	86·6	86·3	86·0	86·6	87·9	87·4	86·5
Mean minimum	74·6	73·5	73·2	73·4	74·0	72·7	72·5	73·3	73·7	74·9	73·5
Mean daily range	12·0	12·4	12·7	13·1	12·6	13·6	13·5	13·3	14·2	12·5	13·0
Approximate temperature...	80·6	79·7	79·5	79·9	80·3	79·5	79·3	79·9	80·8	81·1	80·0

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The highest temperature observed during this period was 93·5°, and the lowest 65°.

Annexed to this Section (p. 37) is a table of meteorological observations for the year 1881, from which it appears that—

The highest monthly maximum temperature was 90·6° in Sept. and Oct.
„ lowest „ „ „ „ 85·1° „ January
„ highest „ minimum „ „ 74·3° „ June
„ lowest „ „ „ „ 71·7° „ January
The hottest months were June and Sept., with an approximate temperature of 82·1°
„ coldest month was January, „ „ „ 78·4°
The highest observed temperature was 93·5°
„ lowest „ „ „ 66°

Climate.

This remarkable uniformity of climate is not, however, accompanied by a never-changing aspect of the elements. On the contrary, there is an agreeable alternation of sunshine and shower. Scarcely a week passes without at least one shower, and the longest period of drought recorded during the last ten years was only fifteen days.

Rain seldom lasts a whole day through; the greater part is discharged in short but heavy showers and in large drops, like those from thunder clouds in England. The effect of these showers is very refreshing; they generally come when the air is unusually close and warm, and, though not lasting perhaps more than half an hour or an hour, they leave it more cool and purified.

Another good point in the climate is that calms are very infrequent. By day there is generally a good breeze from one quarter or other, and by night soft land airs blow out from the jungle. To these land winds is due in great measure the comparative coolness of the nights, which will generally admit of good sound sleep.

The climate is also one in which more out-of-door exercise can be taken than in that of most other tropical countries. From sunrise until eight o'clock in the morning, and from half-past four in the afternoon until sunset, the sun is comparatively harmless; and even at midday Europeans walk about the town with apparent impunity.

By resorting to the neighbourhood a degree at least of reduction in temperature may be secured. In such places, for instance, as Selita, lying well in the interior, and having the primeval forest all around them, the additional coolness is palpable, and cannot be less than two or three degrees.

Peculiar phenomena.

Towards the breaking up of the monsoons, after a short season of unusual heat, during which both moisture and electricity have been increasing, it is not unusual to have smart thunder showers. It is noticed that objects of very little height are often struck by lightning, and several instances have occurred of fishermen being killed in their boats.

Waterspouts are occasionally observed in the Straits and adjacent sea: they usually occur in the morning, between the hours of eight and twelve. There are no other atmospherical disturbances

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of any moment—the typhoons which prevail in the China Sea and the Bay of Bengal do not reach these parts, nor are there hot winds to parch the land.

Effect of climate on vegetation.

The frequency of rainfall and the equable state of the atmosphere promote a luxuriant growth of vegetation, which makes Singapore an island of striking beauty. Its foliage is always in the bloom of summer. Evergreens abound: few trees shed all their leaves at the same time, and many of the fruit trees bear all the year round. The soil is not generally fertile, and most of the necessaries of life are imported, but in the valleys the vegetable productions of the tropics are cultivated successfully.

Effect of climate on health.

The climate of Singapore, though warm and humid, cannot be said to have a prejudicial effect on the health of those who reside there, whether Europeans or natives. It is free both from the long periods of drought combined with great heat by day and sudden chills by night which are experienced in many parts of the tropics, and from the seasons of prolonged dampness which prevail in other places where large falls of rain are registered in a few months. The small showers which so frequently occur here produce a pretty constant condition of temperature, which enables Singapore to compare most favourably with any tropical settlement, and it is almost entirely free from the malaria which often infests countries apparently more favourably circumstanced. With ordinary care and prudence in living, it may fairly be expected that good health will generally be enjoyed; but the uniformity of temperature tends, in course of time, to a relaxation of the body, and after any lengthened stay a certain enfeeblement is the result, for which the only remedy is change to a more bracing climate. No bad effects, however, should be felt from a residence of six or seven years, and it has been maintained by the best local medical authorities that after such a stay, one year in a cold bracing climate is sufficient to restore whatever vigour may have been lost, and fit the European for another term of residence of similar duration.

Statistics as to health of troops.

The Reports of the Army Medical Department for 1878–80, give the following statistics of the health of the troops in the Straits Settlements (Singapore and Penang):—

Year.	Average Annual Strength.	Admissions into Hospital.	Died.			Invalided Home.	Average Daily Sick.	Ratio per 1,000 of Strength.				Average Sick Time to each Soldier.	Average duration of each case of sickness.
			In the Command.	Of Invalids.	Total.			Admissions.	Deaths.	Invalided.	Average Daily Sick.		
												Days.	
1878	921	1,160	10	2	12	28	44·33	1,259·5	13·03	30·40	48·13	17·61	13·98
1879	894	810	4	2	6	13	35·76	906·0	6·71	14·54	40·00	14·60	16·10
1880	827	779	4	1	5	16	34·13	942·0	6·05	19·35	41·27	15·18	16·04

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The most common causes of illness appear to have been fever, scrofula, and diseases of the digestive system.

Statistics as to health of Civil European population.

No reliable statistics are available. On this subject the Principal Civil Medical Officer writes: "The Civil Hospital (European Ward), receives and treats cases of sickness which as a rule are brought into Singapore, and not cases occurring in the Settlement, so that no inferences can be drawn from the Returns."

Sickly periods.

There are no special season considered more sickly than others, except perhaps the periods between May and September, when, if instead of a steady south-west monsoon, the wind falls away to the south, what are called the Java breezes may be felt. At this time the body is in a state of greater relaxation, owing to the sun being to the north of the equator, and is more susceptible to depressing influences. There is thus a greater tendency to catarrhs and colds, which of themselves however are not of a serious nature.

Singapore is not subject to epidemics. There was indeed in 1873; rater a smart outbreak of cholera, lasting from June to August; but the disease was chiefly confined to the native population, and it was mainly due to a deficient water supply. The rainfall in this year was exceptionally small, and most of the wells, which are as a rule fed from surface springs, failed. But this want of good drinking water can hardly be expected to recur, a constant supply of good quality being now provided from the Singapore Water Works. Sporadic cases of smallpox often occur, very frequently being introduced by emigrants and pilgrims, who make Singapore their port of departure in going to or returning from Jeddah. It is not however very fatal.

Sanitary rules as to clothing, diet, &c.

From what has been already said, it will readily be understood that summer clothing is worn throughout the year; the other sanitary rules to be followed are those of ordinary hygiene.

To live well and temperately, to take plenty of exercise in the morning and evening, to go in the sun only with the head and back well covered, are the principal precautions to be taken to preserve health.*

Sanitaria, existing and possible.

There are no stations set apart as sanitaria. The hill at Penang, about 2,500 feet high, is often resorted to with marked success, and it is a consideration whether more enlarged accommodation should not be provided there for the reception of invalids or convalescents from the garrison or from the navy serving in the Straits Settlements, as also from the general public.

Bukit Timah Hill in Singapore, which is about 500 feet high, might also be tried as a sort of change for those whose constitutions are beginning to suffer from relaxation and enervation, provided a sufficient water supply can be depended upon.

There is a government convalescent bungalow at Changi, at the eastern entrance of the Old Strait.

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* See also Appendix page 185.

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ANNUAL ABSTRACT OF METEOROLOGICAL OBSERVATIONS for the Year 1881.—Singapore. Lat. 1° 17′ N.; long. 103° 15′ E. (Straits Settlements Blue Book).

Months.	Barometrical readings corrected and reduced to 32° F.					Hygrometer.								Self-registering Thermometer.							Mean of observations at 7 stations.	Mean direction of the wind.
	9 a.m.	3 p.m.	9 p.m.	Diurnal range.	Means.	9 a.m.		3 p.m.		9 p.m.		Means.		Maximum in sun's rays (in vacuo).	Maximum in sun's rays (exposed).	Minimum on grass.	Maximum in shade.	Minimum in shade.	Diurnal range.	Approximate mean temperature.		
						Dry.	Wet.	Dry.	Wet.	Dry.	Wet.	Dry.	Wet.									
	Ins.	Ins.	Ins.	Ins.	Ins.	°F.	°F.	°F.	°F.	°F.	°F.	°F.	°F.	°F.	°F.	°F.	°F.	°F.	°F.	°F.	Ins.	
January	29·949	29·851	29·929	0·101	29·909	78·9	74·6	81·4	74·9	74·9	72·8	78·4	74·1	144·0	109·7	68·0	85·1	71·7	13·4	78·4	13.49	N., NE., and NNE.
February	·985	·854	·945	·130	·928	82·4	76·5	84·8	76·9	77·1	74·8	81·4	76·1	157·0	117·0	67·0	88·7	71·9	16·8	80·5	1·91	NE. and N.
March.....	·957	·836	·931	·121	·908	82·7	77·1	83·9	77·4	77·4	75·5	81·3	73·3	155·0	112·9	69·9	86·5	72·8	13·7	79·9	8·30	NE. and N.
April	·898	·789	·879	·114	·855	84·0	77·6	84·5	78·1	79·9	76·3	82·8	74·0	153·0	117·0	71·0	89·0	74·0	15·0	81·5	6·14	Variable, SE.-NNE.
May.....	·911	·788	·873	·130	·857	84·8	79·3	85·0	79·6	79·6	77·3	83·1	75·4	152·0	117·0	71·3	88·4	73·7	14·7	81·0	9·38	SE. and SW.
June	·872	·773	·848	·106	·831	83·4	79·6	85·9	80·8	80·1	78·0	83·1	79·5	153·5	118·0	72·1	90·0	74·3	15·7	82·1	2·65	SW.
July	·904	·815	·894	·096	·871	82·5	77·9	84·9	74·8	80·7	77·4	82·7	76·7	145·8	116·3	73·8	85·6	74·2	15·5	81·4	5·01	SW.
August	·880	·876	·874	·103	·873	82·9	79·4	83·8	79·9	79·7	77·5	82·1	75·6	149·7	115·1	71·2	88·4	73·4	15·0	80·9	5·40	SSW. and SW.
September	·918	·807	·874	·114	·933	78·5	77·7	85·0	80·0	80·0	77·0	81·2	71·9	152·0	116·0	71·5	90·6	73·5	17·1	82·1	5·48	SW.
October	·894	·785	·883	·115	·839	82·6	77·3	84·4	78·4	79·2	76·8	82·1	77·5	150·6	114·6	72·1	90·6	73·4	17·2	82·0	10·44	SE. and SW.
November	·867	·795	·874	·121	·845	81·6	77·1	83·0	77·1	76·9	75·7	80·5	76·6	151·3	117·9	71·4	87·3	73·4	13·9	80·7	11·23	NE. and N.
December	·883	·777	·865	·108	·841	80·6	76·9	82·9	77·6	76·4	75·3	79·9	76·6	148·0	118·1	70·9	86·7	73·5	13·2	80·2	12·26	NE.
Means	29·918	29·812	29·889	0·113	29·874	81·9	77·5	84·1	77·8	78·4	76·2	81·6	75·6	150·9	115·8	70·8	88·0	73·3	15·7	80·8		
																				Total	92·29	

Highest reading of Barometer during the year... ... 30·057 inches.
Lowest " " " ... 29·663 "
Highest temperature observed ... ... 93·5°.
Lowest " " ... ... 66°.

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Section H.—AGRICULTURE, PRODUCTIONS, TRADE, &c.

AGRICULTURE AND VEGETABLE PRODUCTIONS.—DOMESTIC ANIMALS.—WILD ANIMALS.—BIRDS.—REPTILES.—FISH AND FISHERIES.—OTHER MARINE PRODUCTS. — SUPPLIES. — MINERALS. — MANUFACTURES.—TRADE. — SHIPPING. — AVERAGE PRICES OF VARIOUS ARTICLES OF USE OR CONSUMPTION.—RATES OF WAGES FOR LABOUR.

Agriculture and vegetable productions.

The exuberant natural vegetation of Singapore is due to the influence of its climate, rather than to that of its soil. The latter may, on the whole, be termed unfertile; it is undoubtedly ill-suited for the cultivation of such plants as rice, sugar-cane, pulses, maize, tobacco, cotton, &c., and the island is therefore dependent upon other countries for a supply of the staple articles of food. On the other hand, all plants which depend more on heat and moisture than on soil, flourish luxuriantly; all kinds of spices grow readily, but nutmegs, cloves, ginger, and pepper are the only sorts raised for commerce; the last-named is dependent on the cultivation of gambier, an abundant crop, the leaves of which, after being boiled, are used as manure for the pepper-vines. The cocoa-nut, areca-nut, and all the fruit-bearing trees of the Indian Archipelago are cultivated with considerable success. Numerous vegetables are raised by the Chinese settlers, including pumpkins, various kinds of melons, cucumbers, yams, sweet potatoes, onions, radishes, garlic, &c.

According to the latest returns, the number of acres in crop is 45,000, out of a total area of 145,000. The principal crops are gambier bushes, 24,000 acres; pepper vines, 2,600 acres; cocoa-nuts, 10,000 acres; areca-nuts, 50,000 trees; essence grasses (cintronella, lemon grass, and patchouly), 1,000 acres; tapioca, 6,000 acres; pine apples, 1,500 acres; nutmeg and mace, 1,200 acres; fruit, 1,000 acres; cloves, ginger, &c., 1,800 acres. About 1,080,000 cocoa-nuts and about 3,000,000 pine apples are produced annually. The produce of the tapioca plantations for the year 1881 was 30,000 cwt. There is an extent of pasture of about 500 acres.

In the husbandry of Singapore, neither plough, harrow, nor spade are employed. All is done with the hoe and mattock. The whole is, in fact, a garden culture, which is perhaps best performed by the hoe, the congenial and habitual implement for this purpose of all Asiatic nations.

The forests contain an immense number of species of timber

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trees, most of them of great height and growth. Above two hundred have been collected, and of these about half-a-dozen afford good timber for house and boat-building. The teak is not of the number. The forests also produce the two species of trees which yield the useful gutta-percha, and a fig which affords an elastic gum. But for use these articles, as well as timber, are not obtained from Singapore itself, but from the wider and more accessible forests of the neighbouring continent.

Domestic animals.

The official returns for 1881 give the numbers of Stock as:—

Horses..	1,689
Horned Cattle	2,202
Sheep	600
Goats	1,500

All cattle, sheep, and pigs used for food are imported.

For details as to transport animals and vehicles, see Tables I and II, pages 24 and 25.

Wild animals.

The zoology of Singapore is that of the neighbouring continent, to the exclusion of some of the larger animals. The largest feline animal indigenous to the island is a small leopard, called by the Malays arimau-däan, that is, "the branch" or climbing tiger. Tigers, which were unknown to the island in the earlier days of the British Settlement, made their first appearance five or six years after it was formed, having crossed over from Johore and rapidly multiplied. Twenty or thirty years ago from two to three hundred persons were destroyed by them every year. Recently, however, great efforts have been made to exterminate these animals, and they are now very rarely seen. The wild hog is frequent, and there are five species of deer. Among the other mammals are the porcupine, the monkeys, the otter, the ferret, the sloth, several kinds of monkeys, bats, especially the flying fox, several varieties of rats, &c. The dugong abounds on the shores.

Birds.

Among the birds to be found in the island are:—two species of quail, six different species of pigeon, from the size of our wood pigeon to that of a thrush; parrots, snipe, pelicans, herons, woodpeckers, falcons, owls, &c.

Reptiles.

Alligators are common in the salt-water creeks, and along the shores of the island, but, having an abundant supply of fish, are not troublesome to man. The iguana lizard is not unfrequent. The esculent turtle is very abundant along the shores of Singapore and the neighbouring islands; and being, as food, restricted to the European and Chinese population, is the cheapest animal food in the market: one of the largest, weighing several hundredweights, selling for six or seven shillings. Snakes are not numerous; the most common is a dark cobra.

Fish and fisheries.

Fish and crustaceans are in great plenty and variety, at least 40 different species having been enumerated. About half-a-dozen of these are excellent for the table, fully equal to the best fish of our own coasts. Amongst the best is the white pomfret of Europeans, the bawal-putch of the Malays.

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Fishing is carried on solely for the purpose of meeting the demand for local consumption. It is estimated that about 20,000 tons of fish of all descriptions are taken yearly. No large-sized craft are employed; the native fishermen, who never venture far out, use only canoes and punts. The principal methods of fishing are by drag-nets and stationary catch-nets, fastened to stakes in deep water.

The number of fishing boats registered is 232; but there are also over 2,000 smaller boats.

Other marine products. Trepang and agar-agar, a delicate fern-like sea-weed, are furnished in great abundance by the neighbouring coral reefs and shoals, and are important articles of commerce for the China and Eastern markets.

Supplies. With the exception of fish and a few vegetables, nearly all the necessaries of life have to be imported, viz.—

Rice from Siam, Batavia, Rangoon, &c.
Wheat from Bengal, Australia, and America.
Cattle from the Malay Peninsula, Siam and Malacca.
Goats and *sheep* from Bengal and the Malay Peninsula.
Poultry from Malacca and the Malay Peninsula.
Swine from Cochin China, the Malay Peninsula and Siam.
Preserved Provisions from the United Kingdom, &c.
The supply of forage is limited. Straw is not generally available, but the dried *lalang* grass is not a bad substitute for horse-bedding.

For average prices of provisions see table, pages 43, 44.

Minerals. Singapore abounds with iron ore; but this is the only metallic product hitherto discovered, though, from the great abundance of tin in the neighbouring countries with a similar geological structure, it probably exists here also. The blue clays furnish an excellent material for bricks and tiles, and the decomposed feldspar of the granite affords a very fine kaolin. The only entry under the heading "Mines and Quarries" in the Returns for 1881, is a granite quarry, which is rented for $ 3,960 a-year.

Manufactures. The manufactures of Singapore are few, the principal being that of preparing sago, which is imported for this purpose from Sumatra and sundry other islands. The process, which is called pearling, fits the sago for being preserved for years. There are also cocoa-nut oil manufactories, a distillery for the production of essential oil, tanneries, dye-houses, &c. Some of the Chinese, who are pretty good blacksmiths, employ themselves actively in the manufacture of agricultural implements, tools, arms, &c. Several hands are also employed in the manufacture of pine-apple fibres and twine, which is exported to China for fabrication into pina cloth.

In connection with the docks and wharves there are various workshops, foundries, &c., as mentioned under Sec. B. (p. 17). Boat and ship building is carried on to a small extent; in the year 1881, sixty-six schooners were constructed, of an aggregate tonnage of 2,977.

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For average rate of wages see table, page 44.

Trade. Singapore enjoys so high a commercial reputation, and carries on such extensive transactions as a trading colony, that it has been termed the "Liverpool of the East." It has, in fact, become the great entrepôt of Southern Asia and the Indian Archipelago, to which the inhabitants of all parts of the Indian Ocean resort with the produce of their farming and manufacturing industry, and in which they find a ready market, abundantly stocked with every variety of European goods. The port has also the advantage of being perfectly free to vessels of all kinds and nations, without charges on exports and imports, or anchorage, or harbour dues.* It is to this freedom from trade restrictions, and to its central and highly convenient situation, that Singapore owes its great prosperity, not to any intrinsic productive capabilities of its own; for it is calculated that of the European manufactures, Indian produce, &c., which are here landed, about 90 per cent. are again re-shipped further eastward, and that not 5 per cent. of the products exported to Great Britain, Europe, America, India, &c., are of local growth or manufacture. To no other port in the world, therefore, can the designation of "entrepôt" be more justly applied.

The commercial prosperity of Singapore has been steadily and indeed rapidly progressive, as is shown by the subjoined statistics.

In 1833	the imports amounted to	£	2,043,000	and the exports to	£	1,705,000.
„ 1843	„	„	2,953,000	„	„	2,595,000.
„ 1853	„	„	3,488,000	„	„	3,027,000.
„ 1863	„	„	6,462,000	„	„	5,555,000.
„ 1880	„	„	11,377,000	„	„	10,233,000.
„ 1881	„	„	13,256,000	„	„	10,875,000.

The following details regarding the trade of the Settlement for the year 1881, are taken from the Straits Settlements Blue Book:—

United Kingdom.

Imports.—From, value, $17,100,000, consisting of cotton and woollen goods, coals, wearing apparel, specie, hardware and cutlery, liquors, provisions, and various manufactured articles.

Exports.—To, value, $11,900,000, consisting of gutta-percha, india-rubber and other gums, gambier, sago, pepper, tapioca, tin, coffee, &c.

Netherlands, India.

Imports.—From, value, $12,700,000, consisting of gutta-percha, india-rubber and other gums, spices, specie, rattans, coffee, sugar, sago, tobacco, bêche de mer, timber, &c.

Exports.—To, value, $14,000,000, consisting of rice, specie, opium, cotton goods, dried fish, iron ware, cigars, preserved provisions, gambier, tea, &c.

* The only tax to which shipping entering the port is liable consists of a very moderate one of 1½*d.* per ton register in support of lighthouses.

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China.

Imports.—Value, $7,300,000, consisting of specie, silk, wearing apparel, tobacco, tea, grain, provisions, &c.

Exports.—Value, $6,300,000, consisting of specie, opium, rattans, bêche de mer, birds' nests, tin, precious stones, cotton goods, spices, &c.

Penang and Malacca.

Imports.—Value, $6,100,000, consisting of tapioca, specie, spices, rice, rattans, &c.

Exports.—Value, $2,600,000, consisting of specie, rice, opium, tobacco, wearing apparel, &c.

Siam and Cochin China.

Imports.—Value, $6,100,000, consisting of rice, salt fish, specie, &c.

Exports.—Value, $5,000,000, consisting of cotton goods, opium, specie, &c.

British India.

Imports.—Value, $6,600,000, consisting of opium, beeswax, &c.

Exports.—Value, $800,000, consisting of spices, specie, sugar, &c.

America.

Imports.—Value, $400,000, consisting of paraffine and kerosene, oils, &c.

Exports.—Value, $4,200,000, consisting of tin, spices, rattans, gums and dyes, tapioca, coffee, &c.

Malay Peninsula (exclusive of Penang and Malacca).

Imports.—Value, $3,600,000, consisting of spices, cotton goods, rice, cattle and swine, copra, salt fish, opium, &c.

Exports.—Value, $3,300,000, consisting of specie, rice, cotton goods, opium, &c.

French India.

Imports.—Value, $1,600,000, consisting of rice, specie, salt fish, &c.

Exports.—Value, $3,400,000, consisting of cotton goods, opium, specie, gums and dyes, &c.

Continental Europe.

Imports.—Value, $2,200,000, consisting of hardware and cutlery, wearing apparel, wines and spirits, piece goods, &c.

Exports.—Value, $2,600,000, consisting of spices, coffee, copra (cocoa-nut kernel), tapioca, &c.

Japan, the Philippines, Sarawak, Labuan, &c.

Imports.—Value, $3,200,000, consisting of specie, sago, gutta-percha, india-rubber and other gums, cigars, &c.

Exports.—Value, $1,200,000, consisting of rice, opium, &c.

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British Burmah.

Imports—Value, $2,800,000, consisting of rice, precious stones, gutta-percha, india-rubber and other gums, &c.

Exports.—Value, $1,700,000, consisting of raw silk, silk goods, &c.

As appears from the annexed Statement, the tonnage of the vessels arriving at Singapore is steadily on the increase. It will be observed that the proportion of sailing vessels to steamers is rapidly diminishing. Shipping.

COMPARATIVE STATEMENT OF VESSELS ENTERED AT THE PORT OF SINGAPORE, for the Years 1849–50, 1865, 1879, 1880, & 1881.

Year.	Square-rigged Vessels.						Native Craft.	
	Sailing Vessels.		Steamers.		Total.		Number.	Tonnage.
	Number.	Tonnage.	Number.	Tonnage.	Number.	Tonnage.		
1849–50	...	...	...	...	707	246,176	1,868	58,590
1865	3,078	...	464	...	3,542	851,444		
1879	486	254,933	1,457	1,255,564	1,943	1,510,497	5,028	141,287
1880	367	266,044	1,753	1,427,052	2,120	1,693,096	4,657	136,959
1881	404	235,388	2,039	1,585,572	2,443	1,820,960	4,472	125,143

Of the 2,443 vessels entered during 1881, 1,659 were British, and 583 belonged to other European powers.

AVERAGE PRICES OF VARIOUS ARTICLES OF USE OR CONSUMPTION (Straits Settlements Blue Book, 1881).

Articles.	Singapore.		Penang.		Malacca.	
	$	c.	$	c.	$	c.
Wheaten flour, per barrel of 196 lbs.	7	00	9	50	9	80
Wheat, per Imperial bushel, (80 lbs.)	2	00	4	00	4	00
Wheaten bread, per loaf..	0	06	0	05	0	10
Horned cattle	35	00	30	00	45	00
Horses	150	00	150	00	150	00
Ponies	100	00	117	00	100	00
Sheep	5	00	10	00	10	00
Goats	4	00	6	00	3	00
Swine, (per 133⅓ lbs.)	15	00	12	00	12	00
Milk, per quart	0	20	0	12	0	10
Butter, fresh, per lb.	0	50	0	80	0	75
Do. salt do.	0	45	0	45	0	50
Cheese do.	0	40	0	40	0	45
Beef do.	0	10	0	18	0	20
Mutton do.	0	30	0	25	0	35
Pork do.	0	09	0	16	0	12

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Average Prices of Various Articles of Use or Consumption—*contd.*

Articles.	Singapore.	Penang.	Malacca.
	$ c.	$ c.	$ c.
Rice, white, per 133 lbs...	3 00	3 00	3 20
Coffee do.	17 00	23 00	15 00
Tea, per lb.	0 30	0 40	0 30
Sugar, white, per lb.	0 07	0 08	0 10
Salt, per lb.	0 01	0 01	0 01
Wine, per dozen	6 00 to 12 00	6 00 to 12 00	6 00 to 12 00
Brandy do.	7 50	7 00 to 15 00	11 00
Beer do.	2 50	2 50	2 50
Tobacco, per lb.	0 20	0 20	0 30

AVERAGE RATES OF WAGES FOR LABOUR (1880).

	Singapore.		Malacca.		Penang.	
	Per Annum.	Per Day.	Per Annum.	Per Day.	Per Annum.	Per Day.
PREDIAL.	$	c.	$	c.	$	c.
All field labourers and gardeners are generally hired by the month, and some on longer agreements. If paid by day they get higher wages.	60	25 to 30	72	25	60	25 to 30
DOMESTIC.						
Domestic servants are all engaged monthly.	72 to 120	..	60 to 120	..	60 to 108	..
TRADES.						
Carpenters and joiners, blacksmiths, bricklayers.	..	45 to 75	96 to 120	40 to 50	84 to 96	40 to 50

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Section I.—INHABITANTS.

RETURN OF POPULATION.—REMARKS ON THE VARIOUS RACES, VIZ:—MALAYS, CHINESE, NATIVES OF INDIA, EUROPEANS,—DETAILED STATEMENT OF THE POPULATION.—LIST OF THE PRINCIPAL PUBLICATIONS.

Return of population.

The population of Singapore, as appears from the subjoined statement, has steadily increased since the establishment of the Colony.

Year.	Population.
1824	11,500
1834	20,500
1844	40,500
1854	65,000
1864	91,000
1871	97,000
1881	139,208*

Of the population in 1881, 86,766 were Chinese, 22,155 Malays, 12,058 Klings, or inhabitants of India, and 2,769* Europeans. There were also a few representatives of various other Asiatic nationalities, as Burmese, Siamese, Javanese, Bugis, &c.† See table, page 61.

MALAYS.

Malays.

The character, pursuits, &c., of the Malay race have been already noticed (pages 8–10). In the British Settlements, where their ancient customs and religious prejudices are respected, and they are fairly and judiciously treated, the Malays prove most loyal subjects and give very little trouble. The young men of the "Flag Societies," which in a manner correspond to the secret societies of the Chinese, occasionally create disturbances, but these are rather mischievous than dangerous, and there is no risk of any extensive party fights. No one in our territory is allowed to carry arms without a pass, and the Malays may be said to have exchanged their krises for silk umbrellas. In case of a Chinese outbreak they could be depended upon to assist the civil authorities as far as they are able.

Under a European who understands their character, the Malays make good soldiers and are thoroughly to be relied upon. For boat work or a jungle expedition they are well fitted, working willingly and bearing hardships without a murmur. They are useless for transport, having a natural objection to any cooly work.

The fishermen and boatmen of Singapore, the main body of the police, and nearly all the coachmen and grooms in the employment

* Inclusive of the Military Establishments.

† The population of the town of Singapore is given under Sec. D., p. 29, and also in detail on page 49.

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of Europeans are Malays. Besides these regular occupations many of them find a living by hawking fruit, poultry, and other produce about the town.

Language. The Malay language unites all classes of the inhabitants, and forms the common medium of intercommunication. There is a considerable difference between the Malay spoken in Penang, Malacca, and Singapore, but it requires a comparatively short time to pick up a sufficient knowledge of the language to suffice for ordinary communication. Malay writers (in the Arabic character) are easily obtained. The grammars and dictionaries chiefly in use are those of Marsden, Crawford, and Favre. Vocabularies have been published by the Education Department. Interpreters, though not of a high order, can be procured at our Settlements without much difficulty.

Chinese.

The Chinese, who already form the bulk of the population of Singapore, are every year increasing in numbers in all parts of the Straits Settlements. Many thousands of immigrants annually arrive, while thousands who have made money return to their homes.

In the Straits the Chinese are classed under five heads, viz:—

1. Macaos, or natives of Canton and its neighbourhood.
2. Kehs, from the Province of Kwantung.
3. Teh-Chews, from Swatow and its vicinity.
4. Hylams, or natives of the Island of Hainau.
5. Hokiens, from Amoy and other places in the Province of Fo-Kien.

The immigrants consist of fishermen, artisans, and labourers belonging to the poorest and most unruly classes in China, and they usually arrive at their places of destination in a state of great destitution.

A peculiarity of Chinese emigration is that it consists almost entirely of adult males. Among the Chinese in the Straits Settlements, the proportion of males to females is about 25 to 1.

As a race the Chinese are very different to the Malays, being most industrious and persevering. Next to Europeans, and indeed in some respects before them, they are the most active and valuable agents in developing the resources of the country. They employ themselves in a great variety of ways, and soon acquire wealth, whether as coolies, artisans or labourers.

The retail trades of Singapore are chiefly engrossed by the Chinese, and they reckon also in their number some of the wealthiest merchants of the place. Most of the mechanics, house-builders, and labourers, as well as many of the commercial clerks and overseers are Chinese. The chief plantations of the island are in their hands, or worked by them, as are also the sago manufactories, &c.

Among themselves the Chinese are polite, dutiful to their parents, and respectful to their elders. They have a strong sense

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of justice and as a rule show no disposition to resist authority, giving their whole attention to business. Although they cannot be said to be attached to the Government, they certainly appreciate the benefit of English rule; and the dread of banishment from the Colony is a strong incentive to orderly conduct.

To these many good qualities, however, the Chinese unite others which are not so satisfactory. They are cruel, untruthful, and greatly addicted to theft. They are imbued with strong national feelings and prejudices, and carry with them the feuds and jealousies which prevail in their native country between people of various tribes and districts. These jealousies have given rise to the institution of secret societies among them, which are in many ways objectionable to the peace and welfare of the community. Were any weakness displayed on the part of Government in dealing with the Chinese, there is little doubt that they would prove most troublesome and dangerous. Split up as they are into secret societies and hostile clans, there is always a danger of an outbreak, which, if not promptly checked, might in a few hours spread, and lead to riots such as those which have occurred more than once. They are always ready to turn out armed for a party fight, and it is only through their headmen that they can be controlled.

Recent legislation, however, has placed large powers in the hands of the executive for dealing with the heads of dangerous societies, and the principal Chinese have invested so much capital and staked so much on the prosperity of the Colony (which they know to be dependent upon the maintenance of our Government), that they can be counted upon to use their influence over their countrymen to preserve order and obedience to the law. It is therefore considered that the Chinese, if dealt with fairly and firmly, are not likely to give any serious trouble.

The Chinese as a race are cowardly, and unless in vastly superior numbers to their opponents are despicable as an enemy. They are, however, invaluable for transport service, the coolies being, as a rule, strongly built and capable of carrying considerable weights for long distances; those from the mines are the best. There are hardly any beasts of burden available in the Peninsula, and the Chinese are the only race fitted for the work. If dealt with through their own headmen, who are made responsible for them, they give little trouble, though an example may have to be made should they show insubordination. One headman, who should understand Malay, can look after twenty coolies, rice, salt fish and chandoo (opium) being given to him for them, and loads being distributed among them. If kept well to the front and properly treated and fed, they will not abandon baggage.

Language.

As already mentioned, the Chinese inhabitants of the Straits Settlements are classified under five heads, with reference to the parts of the Empire from which they come. In all these districts the written language is the same, but a different dialect is used in

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each, which is not understood by the natives of the other districts. Interpreters, however, who speak two or three dialects, and also understand Malay, are easily procurable. A Chinese class has lately been established in Singapore, and it is expected that before long more competent interpreters will be available than has hitherto been the case. Without patient study and colloquial practice, Chinese dictionaries and vocabularies are of little use, owing to the impossibility of distinguishing the various tones.

Natives of India.

The natives of India are chiefly from the Madras Coast (here termed Klings), but a considerable number come from the north-west provinces, and a few from other parts of the country. Thousands of them come every year from the coast, and after making a little money, return in the course of a few years. They mostly, however, come back again, bringing with them their poor relations, as they find it easier to live here than in India. The proportion of males to females among them is about 8 to 1.

They are more industrious than the Malays, but they seldom grow rich like the Chinese. They are mostly employed as petty merchants and shopkeepers, coolies, boatmen, drivers, washermen, cooks, &c.

They are a cringing, lying race, but harmless and easily dealt with, as they seldom get beyond abuse in their quarrels. They may be said to be attached to, or rather dependent on, the Government.

They are quite unsuited for military operations, either for fighting or transport.

Language. The majority of the Klings speak Tamil; the natives of the north-west provinces mostly understand Hindustani. Interpreters are easily obtained.

European Population.

The European inhabitants are principally employed under Government, or engaged in trade. The large majority are British, the remainder are of various nationalities, Germans being the most numerous.

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Distribution of the Population of Singapore (exclusive of British Military), 3rd April, 1881.

Nationalities.	Town Division.	Country Division.	Floating Population.	Total.
Achinese	2	..	..	2
Africans	26	1	5	32
Anamese	28	2	..	30
Arabs	656	96	84	836
Armenians	78	2	..	80
Bengalis, and other natives of India, not particularised.	1,279	181	91	1,551
Boyanese	1,553	551	7	2,111
Bugis..	993	1,056	5	2,054
Burmese	42	9	1	52
Chinese	63,698	18,971	4,097	86,766
Dyaks	24	19	..	43
Eurasians	2,781	292	21	3,094
Europeans and Americans	1,022	294	670	1,986
Japanese	9	8	5	22
Javanese	3,973	1,833	79	5,885
Jawi-Pekans*	667	90	5	762
Jews	152	20	..	172
Malays	9,066	12,045	1,044	22,155
Manilamen	37	8	45	90
Parsees	28	..	..	28
Persians	2	..	..	2
Siamese	86	16	21	123
Sinhalese	29	13	..	42
Tamils	9,092	1,245	170	10,507
Total	95,323	36,752	6,350	138,425

* Native half-castes.

Return of the Principal Publications in the Island of Singapore during the Year 1881.

Title of Publication.	Circulation.
Government Gazette..	300 weekly.
Singapore Daily Times	210 daily.
Straits Times	160 weekly.
Overland Straits Times	150 ,,
Straits Times, Extra	200 ,,
Singapore Daily Imports and Exports	33 daily.
Singapore Auction Gazette	120 monthly.
Exchange Market Report	975 fortnightly.
,, ,, Supplement	150 ,,
Exchange Shipping Report (Arrivals and Departures of Vessels)	31 daily.
Fraser and Co.'s Exchange Circular	70 weekly.
Journal of the Straits Branch of the Royal Asiatic Society ..	600 half yearly.
The Singapore and Straits Directory	325 annually.
Jâwi Pĕrânakkan (Malay)	250 weekly.

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Section K.—HISTORY.

From such early history as we possess it would appear that Singapore was first occupied by a party of Malays from Sumatra
1160. about the year 1160. The island grew in importance and celebrity, and aroused the envy of the King of Majapahit in Java, who, after several unsuccessful attempts, finally effected its capture
1252. by treachery in 1252. The dispossessed Malays retired down the Straits and founded first the powerful kingdom of Malacca, and subsequently the empire of Johore.

Singapore does not appear to have prospered in the hands of its Javanese conquerors, who eventually forsook it, and we hear no more of the place till its occupation by Sir Stamford Raffles on the
1819. 6th February, 1819. The island was then covered with jungle, without a single inhabitant or an acre of cultivated ground, whilst it possessed an unenviable reputation as a resort of pirates. It nominally formed part of the kingdom of Johore.

Shortly before this time the Dutch had, partly by purchase and partly by a show of force, acquired Rhio, the capital of the Island of Bintang, which lies to the southward of the Straits, and as Malacca had also been restored to them they practically monopolised the rich commerce of the eastern seas.

In order to secure a fair participation in this trade, the Indian Government saw the necessity of acquiring a port at the eastern end of the Straits of Malacca, and Sir Stamford Raffles, then Governor of the British Settlement of Bencoolen, wisely selected Singapore for this purpose.

The kingdom of Johore had at this period no properly appointed and recognised sultan, the throne being claimed by two brothers, Husein the elder and Abdulrahman the younger, both residing at Rhio.

Before Sir S. Raffles himself started on his expedition for the occupation of Singapore, he had despatched an agent to ascertain how the case stood, and by him a treaty was concluded with Abdulrahman at Rhio, in August, 1818, for the cession of a small portion of the island.

Sir S. Raffles, however, on his arrival at Singapore, learned that Husein was the elder brother with apparently the better claim to the throne of Johore, and accordingly entered into communication with him through the Tumongong of Johore, a high officer of state, who was then with a fleet of boats in the Singapore River.

Husein was secretly brought to Singapore, and proclaimed Sultan of Johore with all the proper formalities, after which, on the 6th February, 1819, he entered into a treaty of a similar tenor

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to that already formed with Abdulrahman, the Tumongong being also a party to the transaction.

The acquisition of Singapore by the East India Company aroused great indignation amongst the Dutch, both at Java and Rhio; they protested against it, quoted treaties, and threatened, all to no purpose; the officers in charge of the Settlement refused to move, and in July, 1819, a despatch was sent by the Supreme Government of India to Baron van der Capellen, Governor-General of Netherlands India, in which all objections were disposed of, and the step taken by Sir S. Raffles was fully justified.

For the first four years after its settlement, Singapore ranked as one of the dependencies of Bencoolen (or Fort Marlborough), of which Sir Stamford Raffles was Governor; but in 1823 it was constituted an independent residency, immediately under the Bengal Government. 1823.

The inconveniences of the original arrangement, whereby the sovereignty of the whole island with the exception of the patch on which the town was to stand, was left to the Malay princes, quickly made themselves felt. Accordingly on the 2nd August, 1824, a subsequent and final treaty was concluded between the East India Company on the one hand, and the Sultan and Tumongong of Johore on the other, by which in consideration of a monthly payment of $700 "the Island of Singapore, together with the adjacent seas, straits, and islets, to the extent of ten geographical miles from the coast of Singapore, were given up in full sovereignty and property to the East India Company, their heirs and successors for ever." Singapore thus became a permanent British Settlement. 1824.

All differences with the Dutch regarding our Settlements in the Straits were definitely settled by a treaty entered into in March, 1824, between Great Britain and Holland, wherein the town of Malacca was ceded to England, the King of Holland at the same time withdrawing all objections to the occupation of Singapore, and engaging for himself and his subjects never to form any establishment on any part of the Peninsula, nor to conclude any treaty with any State therein. On the other hand, all English possessions in Sumatra were handed over to the Dutch, and it was further stipulated that no British Settlement should be formed in future there, or in any of the islands south of the Straits of Singapore, and that no alliance should be entered into by British authority with the chiefs of those islands.

By this treaty the Dutch were very great gainers, the British Government appear to have concluded it in ignorance of the value of the regions affected.

In 1826 Singapore was associated with Penang and Malacca, and formed into the Colony of the Straits Settlements, the seat of government being at first fixed at Penang. 1826.

Singapore was from its foundation constituted a free port, the

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only one at that time existing in the Eastern seas; and this freedom, combined with its highly convenient situation, soon attracted to it a considerable trade. In the year 1822, the value of its exports and imports was upwards of eight millions of dollars, two years later they amounted to more than thirteen millions, and, as has been seen (page 41), a large and steady increase has ever since been maintained.

1830. By 1830 Singapore had grown to be a considerable and important place of over 14,000 inhabitants, and several large works were then begun or were in progress, such as Fort Fullerton, the

1836. Court House, &c., and in 1836 it became the seat of Government of the Straits Settlements.

1839. In 1839 the strategic importance of Singapore was first realised. In that year the China War broke out, and Singapore formed the gathering point for the large forces which were despatched thither, as well as their main base of supply for the three subsequent years during which the operations lasted.

Little had, so far, been done in Singapore in the way of agriculture, it having hitherto been the policy of the Supreme Government to reserve the lands, under a false impression that they would some day and some how be great gainers thereby.

1850. About 1850 a different policy was adopted, and the greater part of the island was disposed of for agricultural purposes. Most of these undertakings, however, though for a time successful, were after a few years abandoned, owing to (1) the poorness of the soil, which refused to yield after the first two or three exhaustive crops had been taken, and (2) the failure of some of the species of cultivation, such as that of nutmegs.

Affairs progressed smoothly and favourably in the Colony until

1854. 1854, when there occurred the first Chinese riot, the origin of which is attributable to the jealousies and animosity of the various secret societies.

1859. In 1859 a second and more serious Chinese riot occurred, and in the same year the ancient authority of the Honourable East India Company in the Straits was transferred to the Crown; the Straits Settlements being placed under the control of the India Office.

1867. In 1867 the Straits Settlements, by desire of the European inhabitants, and after long consideration and discussion between the India and Colonial Offices, passed from the former to the latter and become a Crown Colony.

In 1871 an expedition was despatched from Penang to punish some pirates who had taken refuge in Selangor, and there defied the Straits authorities, and, as will be seen (*see* page 99) the object was successfully accomplished.

In 1874 new and more intimate relations were formed between the Singapore Government and the rulers of Perak, Selangor, and Sungei Ujong. The anarchy prevailing in these States had been for some years a source of disquiet to the British Colonies, and a

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hindrance to the prosperity of trade; repeated acts of piracy having taken place on their coasts and rivers, while all appeal to the native authorities was fruitless. To remedy this state of matters, Sir A. Clarke, the Governor of the Straits, made friendly arrangements with the native chiefs to take the States mentioned under British protection, and to station in each a British officer as Resident to advise their rulers respecting the collection of revenue and general administration.

Before this was accomplished in Sungei Ujong, a small combined force had to be despatched thither to overawe a turbulent chief, and to rescue an officer of Government who was in danger.*

In the following year, 1875, disturbances arose in Perak,† Mr. Birch, the British Resident, being murdered, and resistance offered to a force sent to apprehend the murderers; while at the same time the Residency at Sungei Ujong was menaced by bodies of Malays from some of the neighbouring States.‡

The suppression of these outbreaks necessitated the employment of considerable forces, but by the adoption of prompt and energetic measures order was speedily re-established.

Measures have since been adopted for securing the better government of the protected States, including the establishment of an adequate police force, and no further disturbances or opposition to British authority are apprehended.

There is no present fear of the Colony being involved in hostilities with any of the native governments of the Peninsula, or of any serious disturbance breaking out within the Settlement itself. As has been already said, the Chinese are the only class of the inhabitants of Singapore at all likely to give trouble, and the garrison, police, and European residents are quite capable of dealing with any riot which might arise among them.

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* See p. 166. † See p. 149. ‡ See p. 167.

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Section L.—ADMINISTRATION.

FORM OF GOVERNMENT.—GENERAL POWERS OF THE GOVERNOR.—MILITARY POWERS OF THE GOVERNOR.—EXECUTIVE COUNCIL.—LEGISLATIVE COUNCIL.—LIST OF THE PRINCIPAL GOVERNMENT DEPARTMENTS AND OFFICIALS.—COLONIAL SECRETARY.—ASSISTANT COLONIAL SECRETARY FOR NATIVE STATES.—CHINESE PROTECTORATE.—REGISTRATION DEPARTMENT.—JUDICIAL SYSTEM.—ECCLESIASTICAL DETAILS.—EDUCATION.—HOSPITALS AND ASYLUMS.—POLICE.—PRISONS.—MUNICIPAL COMMISSION.—TENURE OF LAND.—RELATIONS WITH THE NATIVE STATES.

Form of Government.

On the 1st of April, 1867, the Straits Settlements were transferred from the control of the Government of India to that of the Secretary of State for the Colonies by an Order in Council issued under the authority of an Act of the Imperial Parliament, and were constituted a Crown Colony, which they still continue to be.

The Crown has the entire control of legislation in the Colony, while its administration is carried on by officers under the control of the Home Government Authorities.

Its Government is vested in a Governor, who is responsible for the proper conduct of the affairs of all three Settlements, and has to render account of the same to the Secretary of State. He is assisted by an Executive and a Legislative Council.

Singapore is the usual place of residence of the Governor, the seat of Government for the whole Colony, and the place of assembly of the Executive and Legislative Councils.

Till 1879, Penang and Malacca were each presided over by a Lieutenant-Governor, but in that year the Lieutenant-Governor of Malacca was replaced by a Resident Councillor, and it is intended, on the next vacancy, to carry out a similar change in the Government of Penang. Both of these officials are entirely subordinate to the Governor at Singapore; they cannot correspond direct with the Secretary of State, but only through the Governor. All Government officers also in these Settlements are subordinate to the heads of their several departments in Singapore. The lately formed settlement of the Dindings is placed, for temporary convenience, under the supervision of the Resident of Perak. It is under the jurisdiction of the Supreme Court of Singapore.

The Governor.

The general powers of the Governor may be summed up in the following outline:—He is empowered to grant a pardon or respite to any criminal convicted in the Colonial Courts of Law, and has in general the power of remitting any fines or forfeitures which may accrue to the Crown. All moneys to be expended for the public service are issued under his warrant, as the law in each case may direct. He has the usual powers, under the Colonial Regula-

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tions, for appointing or suspending officers, subject, in the case of those whose emoluments exceed £200 per annum, to reference to the Home Authorities. The initiation of all laws belongs in general to him, and he has the power of granting his assent to bills or of suspending their operation until they are confirmed by the Crown.

Military powers of the Governor.

The Governor, though bearing the titles of Vice-Admiral and Commander-in-Chief, is not invested with the command of H.M.'s Regular Forces in the Colony. He is not therefore entitled to take the immediate direction of any military operations or, except in cases of urgency, to communicate with subordinate military officers without the concurrence of the officer in command of the Forces. Any such exceptional communication must be immediately notified to that officer. Except in the case of foreign invasion or assault, when the whole responsibility and entire military authority rest with the officer in command of the Forces, it is the duty of the Governor to determine the objects with which, and the extent to which H.M.'s Troops are to be employed. He will therefore issue to the officer in command of the Forces directions respecting their distribution and their employment on escort or other duties required for the safety and welfare of the Colony. In all such cases, however, the Governor should consult as far as possible with the officer in command, and will incur special responsibility if he shall direct the troops to be stationed or employed in a manner which that officer shall consider open to military objection.

These restrictions upon the Governor's military powers hold good even though he be a military officer of superior rank to the officer in command of the troops.

Except in cases of invasion, &c., as above mentioned, the Governor, as the Queen's Representative, gives the word at all places within his Government.

Executive Council.

The executive council has the general duty of assisting the Governor by its advice. It consists of the following nine principal officers of the Government, viz.:—

The Governor.
The Officer Commanding the Troops.
The Lieutenant-Governor of Penang.
The Colonial Secretary.
The Resident Councillor of Malacca.
The Attorney-General.
The Treasurer.
The Auditor-General.
The Colonial Engineer.

These officers are appointed by warrant from the Crown, the Governor having the power of making provisional appointments.

Legislative Council.

The legislative council consists of the nine members of the executive council, with the chief justice and six nominated unofficial members (five representatives of Singapore, and one of Penang).

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When a vacancy occurs in this council by the death or resignation of a member appointed by name, the Governor has the right to make a provisional appointment until Her Majesty's pleasure be known. As a general rule, no member may absent himself without leave for more than six months without vacating his seat, but the Governor may grant twelve or eighteen months' leave of absence. As mentioned above, all measures submitted to the legislative council are proposed by the Governor, and his assent is necessary to give their enactments the force of law. The Governor can also secure a majority of votes by the authority vested in him of requiring, should he think fit, the active support, on any question, of all official members.

List of the principal Government Departments and Officials.

The principal Government departments and officials at Singapore are:—

The Governor and Commander-in-Chief.
Colonial Secretary's Office. — Colonial Secretary, Assistant Colonial Secretary, Assistant Colonial Secretary for Native States, &c. (*see* pages 56, 57).
Chinese Branch.—Protector of Chinese (*see* page 57).
Land Branch.—Collector.
Treasury.—Treasurer and Accountant-General.
Audit Office.—Auditor-General.
Public Works and Survey Department.—Colonial Engineer and Surveyor-General.
Marine Department.—Master Attendant.
Post Office.—Postmaster-General.
Registration Department.—Registrar-General (*see* page 57).
Supreme Court.—Chief Justice, Puisne Judge (*see* page 58).
Attorney-General's Department.—Attorney-General.
Police Court.—Police Magistrates (*see* page 58).
Court of Requests.—Commissioner (*see* page 58).
Sheriff's Department.—Sheriff.
Ecclesiastical.—Bishop, Colonial Chaplain (*see* pages 58, 59).
Education.—Inspector of Schools (*see* page 59).
Medical.—Principal Civil Medical Officer.
Police.—Inspector-General (*see* page 59).
Gaols.—Superintendent of Prisons.

The Government establishments at Penang and Malacca are similar to the above, but on a smaller scale (*see* pages 100, 124).

Colonial Secretary.

The Colonial Secretary is the sole channel for all official communications to Government; this rule is only relaxed in the cases of the judges, the officer in command of the troops, and the senior naval officer, who usually correspond with the Governor direct.

Assistant Colonial Secretary for Native States.

The establishment of the residential system in the native States of Perak, Selangor, and Sungei Ujong (the nature of which is stated in detail at pp. 168, 177, and 185) rendered necessary an addition to the staff of the Colonial Secretary's Department. Accordingly, in

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1876, an Assistant Colonial Secretary was appointed, who is directly charged with the affairs of these States.

Chinese Protectorate.

Previous to the introduction of a protectorate system for Chinese immigrants, the abuses connected with the importation of Chinese Coolies had been attended with many evil results, and endangered the peace of the community to so large an extent that the subject was felt to be one which required far more care than it had hitherto received.

These evils may be classed under the three following heads:— (1.) The ill-treatment and extortion which imported Coolies experienced at the hands of their importers; (2.) the compulsory prostitution of girls brought from China against their own consent and that of their friends and relations; and (3) the existence of several secret societies, animated by feelings of feud against each other, and from time to time engaging in faction fights, which not unfrequently terminated in dangerous and extensive riots.

By the establishment of a system of registering both immigrants and emigrants, and the appointment of a protector of Chinese with a small staff in Singapore and Penang, these abuses have now been effectually dealt with in the following manner:—

1. A fixed charge has been determined on by the department as being payable by the Cooly to his importer; and agreements to labour, with guarantees for both master and Cooly, are arranged and carried out under the supervision of the department.

2. All women brought over by immigrant vessels are examined by the officers of the department, and questioned as to their wishes and intentions, not a few having been returned to their homes.

3. All secret societies are registered; they can always be attended by the Protector of Chinese and the chief police officer, and have now become a source of assistance to the police in the arrest of criminals. Deprived of their backbone—secrecy—their influence is fast waning.

Registration Department.

The Registration Department became necessary upon the framing of the Contagious Diseases Ordinance of 1873, the advisability of which was strongly urged on the part of Her Majesty's ships on this station.

Judicial System.

Laws.

The laws by which the Courts of the Colony are bound may generally be viewed primarily as the Common Law of England, "so far as it is applicable to the circumstances of the place, and modified in its application to those circumstances."

Until 1867, the laws in force were the legislative enactments of the Governor of India in Council, but since the transfer the acts of the Colonial Legislature, together with the Merchant Shipping Laws of England, have been administered in the Colony Although the larger proportion of the inhabitants is composed of

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Mahomedans, Hindus, and Chinese, the Hindu and Mahomedan laws are not administered by our Courts among people of these creeds, as is the practice in India.

Charters of the Court.

Previous to the tranfer of the Settlements in 1867, their judicial arrangements had been regulated by a series of Charters of the Court, the last of which was dated 1855.

Ordinance of 1868, Supreme Court founded.

This Charter was practically superseded but not altogether abolished by the first Court's Ordinance, viz., that of 1868, under which a Supreme Court was established.

1873, summary side added.

By a later Ordinance in 1873, a summary side of the Court, with a jurisdiction of from $10 to $50 was added, modelled upon the English County Court system exclusive of Equity matters.

Courts Ordinance, 1878.

In 1878, however, an entirely new Ordinance was passed, fixing the powers of the Court and the establishment of the judges.

Powers of the Supreme Court.

The Supreme Court exercises jurisdiction in Probate and Bankruptcy. It is also a Court of Vice-Admiralty by virtue of an order in Council of the 4th November, 1867. Under a recent Imperial Act it possesses criminal jurisdiction in respect of offences committed by British subjects of the Malay Peninsula who have been resident in the Colony. This jurisdiction extends to criminal offences committed by British subjects in Siam, and is concurrent with that of the British Consulate Court in respect of civil matters; it is also a Court of Appeal from the above-mentioned Court.

Courts of Appeal.

Courts of Appeal were first established in the Colony in 1874, consisting of any two of the judges sitting together.

Courts of Requests.

By the Ordinance of 1875, which established the summary side of the Supreme Court, a great modification was made in the Courts of Requests, and their jurisdiction was reduced from $50 to $10. In 1876, however, they were re-constituted on their previous footing, and the Ordinance of 1878 left them undisturbed. No Commissioners are appointed to preside over these Courts, their administration being entrusted to the several magistrates of police. Of late, however, an exception in this respect has been made in Singapore, where an officer of Government has been specially appointed to sit as Commissioner in the Court of Requests.

The Judges.

The first appointment of judges after the transfer was made under the Ordinance of 1868, by which a chief justice for Singapore and Malacca was appointed, residing at the former place, and a judge for Penang.

The Courts' Ordinance of 1878 has now finally fixed the number at three, and the present establishment consists of a chief justice resident at Singapore, and of two puisne judges, one residing at Singapore and the other at Penang.

Police Magistrates.

There were till recently two magistrates of police at Singapore, but a third has now been appointed, there having been lately a more than usually large amount of crime in the Colony.

Ecclesiastical.

The Straits Settlements form, as far as the Church of England,

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is concerned, part of the diocese of Labuan and Sarawak. The bishop resides chiefly at the latter place. The civil establishment of Singapore includes a Colonial chaplain (Church of England). There are also in the island clergymen of various denominations (Church of England, Roman Catholic, Protestant and Armenian), supported by different religious societies, or by private contributions.

Education.

In 1873 an Inspector of Schools was appointed to superintend the education of the Colony. There were in 1881 twenty-two schools in Singapore, half of them English and half Malay, attended by 2,192 scholars. Some of them are entirely and some partially supported by Government. The grant for this purpose amounted to $41,000.

The principal educational establishment is the Raffles Institution, founded by Sir S. Raffles for the cultivation of the languages of China, Siam, and the islands of the Malay Archipelago. It contains a library and museum.

Hospitals and Asylums.

These consist of a general hospital for Europeans and natives, a Pauper Hospital for Chinese coolies, a Lock Hospital, and a Lunatic Asylum.

The largest of these institutions is the Pauper Hospital, which has accommodation for 572 patients. It is supported partly by Government, partly by bequest and voluntary contributions, and is managed by a Committee comprising some of the wealthiest "Tonkangs" (Chinese headmen) in the island. The other Hospitals are maintained entirely by Government. The General Hospital, which is situated at Sepoy Lines, about 1¼ mile from the town, is not adequate to the wants of the Colony, and a new building is about to be erected. Fees are charged to all patients in this hospital who can afford to pay, ranging from $2 per diem for European officers, to 6 cents per diem for police constables. The Lock Hospital and Lunatic Asylum are reported to be not quite in a satisfactory condition, and are at present engaging the attention of Government with a view to their improvement.

Prisons.

A new prison, with accommodation for 720 inmates in separate cells, has lately been constructed at Pearl Hill, south-west of the town.

Municipal Commission.

The municipal affairs of the town of Singapore (*e. g.* conservancy, lighting, water supply, maintenance of roads, &c.) are managed by a body of Commissioners, who are empowered to levy certain rates and taxes on property within the municipal boundaries (*see* pages 29, 80). The Commissioners are subject, in regard to appointments, the audit of accounts, and the imposition of taxes, &c. to the supervision of the Local Government.

Tenure of land.

Crown land in the Island of Singapore is either held in fee simple, or on leases for a term which, with few exceptions, is either 99 or 999 years. There are also some 60-year leases in the town, and a few have been issued in the country for periods of 10 years, for gambier and pepper cultivation. About 5,000 acres

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are held by squatters under permit from Government. All leases in the country pay an annual quit rent of 30 cents per acre.

In consequence of the large amount of land alienated by grants in fee simple previous to 1871, the permanent revenue from land in Singapore is comparatively small.

Relations with the native States.

The establishment of the residential system in the States of Perak, Selangor, and Sungei Ujong, and the subsequent serious disturbances which took place in the first named, have been already alluded to (*see* pages 52, 53).

Upon the restoration of order, the future government of these States received the fullest attention of Her Majesty's Government, and the policy which was finally decided upon by the Secretary of State is now being carried out.

Perak.

Raja Muda Yusuf, the next heir to the Sultanate of Perak, after the deportation of Abdullah, was left at the head of affairs, and a Resident was appointed to his court to give influential and responsible advice to him, to maintain peace and law, to initiate a sound system of taxation, with the consequent development of the resources of the country, and to supervise the collection of the revenue.

To assist the Resident in the due performance of these duties, a mixed Council of State, consisting of some of the principal chiefs and of the higher European officers of Government, has been appointed, and in this Council the chief authority of the country is vested.

The footing upon which the Government stands at present with the chiefs of Perak is essentially a friendly one, and the Regent's two sons are at this moment receiving an education from a Government schoolmaster. The prosperity of the State, which is being rapidly opened up, is progressing satisfactorily.

Selangor.

The same form of government is in force in Selangor, which country is still ruled by the old Sultan, Abdul Samat.

Sungei Ujong.

In Sungei Ujong, the chief ruler of which is the Datu Klana, a Council has not yet been established, but in other respects the form of government is similar to that of Perak and Selangor.

The Residents are in direct subordination to the Secretariat in Singapore, and receive from the Government of the Straits Settlements all directions as to the advice they are to tender; it is, further, their duty to report to this Government all decisions arrived at by the State Council of their respective States.

Officers are appointed by the State to exercise magisterial functions under the Resident, but without other responsibility; the only officials recognised by treaty being the three Residents and the assistant Resident at Larut.

Relations with other States, &c.

The Straits Settlements have no connection with any other Government or Colony, except in regard to the special jurisdiction of the supreme court, referred to at page 58.

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Section M.—FINANCE.

PROGRESS OF REVENUE AND EXPENDITURE.—FINANCIAL SITUATION OF THE COLONY.—ABSTRACT OF REVENUE AND EXPENDITURE FOR 1881.—EXPLANATION OF ITEMS OF REVENUE AND EXPENDITURE.—MILITARY EXPENDITURE.—PUBLIC DEBT.—MUNICIPAL REVENUES.

PROGRESS ON REVENUE AND EXPENDITURE.

Progress of revenue and expenditure.

The Revenue of the Straits Settlements has grown with the increase in the population, importance, and prosperity of the Colony, and as appears from the subjoined statement continues to manifest a steady progress.

	Revenue.	Expenditure.
1871	$1,403,703	$1,254,111
1876	1,659,035	1,544,144
1877	1,723,466	1,602,105
1878	1,724,466	1,597,811
1879	1,822,651	1,887,009
1880	2,361,300	2,038,947
1881	2,433,821	2,355,807

Principal source of revenue.

The revenue is mainly derived from licenses for the sale of opium and spirits, and the only circumstance likely to affect it to any considerable extent would be a large decrease in opium smoking by the Chinese population, which there seems no reason to anticipate.

No imperial contribution is received.

FINANCIAL SITUATION OF THE COLONY.

Financial situation.

The state of the finances of the Colony may be considered satisfactory, the expenditure for the last two years (1880–1), having been well within the revenue. The balance to the credit of the Colony on the 1st January, 1882, was $875,604*, and as will be seen (page 67), the public debt is small, and is in process of reduction.

Malacca was long a drag on the colonial finances, but by judicious management its affairs have now been brought into a more prosperous condition, and the returns of the Settlement for 1880–81 show a fair excess of revenue over expenditure.

* From this balance has, however, to be deducted a sum of $311,232 due to the Imperial Government on account of the Perak War expenses.

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Abstract of Revenue for the Year 1881.

Item.	Heads of Revenue.	Singapore.	Penang.	Malacca.	Crown Agents.	Total.
		$	$	$	$	$
1	To Land Revenue ..	70,495	55,057	73,164	..	198,716
2	„ Rents, exclusive of Lands.	1,301	4,389	876	..	6,566
3	„ Licenses	823,550	657,525	101,747	..	1,582,822
4	„ Stamps	138,394	77,973	11,018	..	227,385
5	„ Port and Harbour Dues.	56,532	16,160	1,149	..	73,841
6	„ Postage	51,366	17,147	990	..	60,503
7	„ Fines, Forfeitures, and Fees of Court	27,406	24,126	5,895	..	57,427
8	„ Fees of Office ..	4,750	4,852	800	..	10,402
9	„ Reimbursements .	72,975	31,949	7,997	4,683	117,604
10	„ Sale of Government Property.	3,497	275	72	..	3,844
11	„ Interest	43,124	4,327	..	..	47,451
12	„ Miscellaneous Receipts.	3,686	515	15	..	4,216
13	„ Special Receipts ..	19,469	13,441	1,135	..	34,045
	Total Receipts ..	1,316,545	907,736	204,858	4,683	2,433,822

Abstract of Expenditure for the Year 1881.

Item.	Heads of Expenditure.	Singapore.	Penang.	Malacca.	Crown Agents.	Total.
1	By Establishments—	$	$	$	$	$
	Salaries	390,336	212,710	76,672	33,005	712,723
	Contingencies	8,813	3,680	629	1,011	14,133
	Total Establishments	399,149	216,390	77,301	34,016	726,856
2	By Pensions	16,898	16,653	7,026	16,975	57,552
3	„ Revenue Services ..	20,470	2,867	6,061	6,115	35,513
4	„ Administration of Justice.	2,203	2,149	427	17	4,796
5	„ Ecclesiastical	144	672	249	..	1,065
6	„ Charitable Allowances	5,756	1,375	2,460	408	9,999
7	„ Education	41,799	8,882	10,557	1,324	62,562
8	„ Medical	40,485	23,554	6,017	9,505	79,561
9	„ Police	20,716	7,641	939	11,758	41,054
10	„ Gaols	29,534	17,992	3,726	464	51,716
11	„ Marine Department ..	64,792	5,218	2,057	2,615	84,682
12	„ Conveyance of Mails ..	13,704	953	262	29,600	44,519
13	„ Rent	3,217	1,864	840	..	5,921
14	„ Transport	21,921	16,767	7,359	7,801	53,848
15	„ Interest	6,575	..	..	20,083	26,658
16	„ Miscellaneous Services	56,135	19,009	2,293	22,735	100,172
17	„ Works and Buildings.	362,841	101,176	12,085	12,355	488,457

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Abstract of Expenditure for the Year 1881—*continued.*

Item.	Heads of Expenditure.	Singapore.	Penang.	Malacca.	Crown Agents.	Total.
18	By Roads, Streets, and Bridges.	941	32,603	22,259	..	55,803
19	„ Land and Houses purchased.	..	600	..	..	600
20	„ Military Expenditure.	238,636	276	320	..	239,232
21	„ Native States.. ..	822	..	..	..	822
22	„ Special Expenses ..	182,873	393	1,154	..	184,420
	Total Expenditure..	1,529,611	477,034	163,392	185,771	2,355,808

Explanation of Items of Revenue.

Land revenue.

This item comprises land rents and commuted tenths, premium on leases, uncommuted tenths (principally in Malacca), timber royalty, fees of leases and registration, &c. (*see* Sec. L, page 59).

Rents exclusive of land.

Under this head are included the sum received for letting out certain Government bungalows, ferries, and public buildings, and the rent paid for the regular hire of certain houses belonging to Government.

Licenses.

This item produces about two-thirds of the total revenue of the Colony. It is collected on a peculiar system, the privilege of collecting the excise dues being farmed out, or sold to the highest bidder. This system of excise farming seems to have been first adopted in the Indian Archipelago by the Dutch, who early found it the only practicable method of collecting a tax upon the consumption of luxuries in a Settlement possessing such a mixed and extensive population as Singapore; and it was introduced by the English into Penang shortly after the occupation of that island.

The "farms" now existing are four, viz., those of opium, spirits, toddy and bhang, and pawnbrokers.

The *Opium Farm,* which is essentially a tax on the Chinese, gives the exclusive right of retailing opium, and of preparing chandoo and opium dross.

The *Spirit Farm* confers the right to retail all liquors containing alcohol, except toddy and bhang.

These two farms are let for a period of three years, from 1st January, 1880, at a rental of $1,510,740.

Toddy and Bhang are native indulgences. The farm produces only a small sum.

Pawnbrokers are required by ordinance to take a license, paying a fee, to be fixed by Government from time to time, and under certain rules. The privilege is farmed out, and produces a revenue of $70,968.

In the earlier days of the Settlement there existed a gambling

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farm, which produced a rental even higher than that of opium. This, however, was abolished in 1829, and has not since been introduced, in spite of sundry agitations in its favour.

Stamps. Consists of the proceeds of stamps used for commercial and judicial purposes, the registration of vessels, &c. The stamp tax, which is now a considerable source of revenue, was only introduced in 1863, and although great outcries were at first made against it by the mercantile community, it does not seem to have proved any perceptible restraint on the business of the Colony.

Port and harbour dues. Includes light dues at 1½d. per ton for the maintenance of lighthouses in the Straits, fees on the engagement or discharge of seamen, on the survey of vessels, and on the registration of boats, &c.

Postage. Derived from the sale of postage stamps, postage collections, and miscellaneous receipts.

Fines, forfeitures, and fees of Court. This consists chiefly of the fines and fees of the police magistrate's court.

Fees of office. Chiefly derived from fees for pounding stray animals and registration of hackney carriages.

Reimbursement. The receipts under this head comprise:—

Sale of Bricks made in the Government brickyard, chiefly used on public works, or sold at a profit of 10 per cent., $19,268.

Sale of Prison Manufactures, $3,914.

Contributions from Municipalities.—The Governor and Legislative Council fix annually the sum which may be necessary for the payment and maintenance of the police force ($50,600 in 1881).

Hire of Police to Private Persons.—Additional constables are enrolled from time to time, as application may be made, to act as guards or watchmen at the banks and large mercantile establishments, and are hired out to the persons so applying for them at such rates as will cover cost of pay, clothing, and accoutrements.

Hospital Charges Recovered.—(*See* Sec. L, page 59).

Survey Fees, School Fees, &c.

Sale of Government property. From sale of unserviceable stores, &c.

Interest. Interest on bank accounts and deposits, on loans to native States and to municipalities; profit on small silver coin issued at par.

Miscellaneous receipts. Principally revenue collected at Pulau Pangkor.

Special receipts. Fees under Contagious Diseases Ordinance, &c.

Explanation of Items of Expenditure.

Establishments. Payments on account of fixed and provisional salaries, allowances and office contingencies to the various Government officials, as under:—

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	$
CIVIL, including Governor, Lieut.-Governor, Resident Councillor, Councils, Treasury, Audit Office, Public Works and Survey, Harbour Department, Lighthouses, Government Vessels, Post Office, and Registration Department, &c.	304,251
JUDICIAL, including Supreme Court, Attorney General's Department, Protector of Immigrant's Department, Police Courts, Courts of Requests, Sheriff's Department, Coroner's Department	146,505
ECCLESIASTICAL	11,514
EDUCATION	6,693
MEDICAL	42,811
POLICE	180,224
GAOLS	34,858
Total	726,856

Political pensions, the principal being one of $10,000 to the Rajah of Kedah in consideration of the cession of Penang and Province Wellesley, and Superannuation Allowances. — Pensions.

Expenses of Surveys, Allowances to Pengulus for collection of Land Revenue, Allowances to extra Clerks, purchase of stamps, &c. — Revenue services.

Fees to coroners, compensation, &c., to witnesses, serving process, &c. — Administration of justice.

Grant-in-aid for providing Divine Service in Province Wellesley, &c. — Ecclesiastical.

Gratuities to officers not entitled to pensions, relief of distressed British subjects, grants to Benevolent Societies, &c. — Charitable allowances.

Grants to schools. — Education.

Includes all expenses for the attendance on and maintenance of patients in the different hospitals of the Colony. — Medical.

Clothing and accoutrements for the whole Force, extra pay to detectives, pay of additional constables, lighting, conveyance of witnesses, rations for prisoners, &c. — Police.

Rations and clothing for prisoners and warders, lighting, materials for manufacture, medical comforts for gaol, hospital, &c. — Gaols.

Additional lights for the Straits, maintenance of lights, buoys, beacons, Government vessels and boats, clothing, rations, fuel, water, stores, &c. — Marine Department.

Carriage and delivery of letters within the Colony, subsidies for conveyance of Foreign mails, &c. — Conveyance of mails.

Rent of quarters for various Government officials. — Rent.

Travelling allowances and expenses of public officers. — Transport.

Interest and sinking fund on loan, difference of exchange on remittances to the Crown agents, &c. — Interest.

Instruction and expenses of cadets, allowance for temporary overseers, Public Works Department, stationery, expenses of Fire Commissioners, grants to Library, Museum, Botanical and Zoological Gardens, expenses of Immigration Agency, &c. — Miscellaneous services.

Comprises all expenses for the erection of new works and buildings, and for alterations, additions and repairs to existing buildings, &c. Of the amount charged under this head $23,451 were expended for the upkeep of military posts and works. — Works and buildings.

Provides for the construction and upkeep of all roads, bridges, — Roads, streets, and bridges.

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&c., except those within a certain radius of the towns, which are maintained by the several municipalities.

Military Expenditure.

(*a*) *Imperial.*

Imperial military expenditure.

Expenditure by the Army Pay Department in the Straits Settlements during the year 1881:—

	$
General staff and regimental pay, establishments, pensions, wages, &c.	194,077
Provisions, forage, fuel and light, transport, clothing, services and supplies, &c.	111,154
Warlike stores..	4,194
Works and buildings	5,450
	314,875
Payments to Her Majesty's ships, &c.	110,814
Passages and freight	3,612
Total	$429,301

Note.—The above is purely local expenditure, and does not include regimental clothing, passage to and from England, &c.

(*b*) *Colonial.*

Colonial military Expenditure.

The military expenditure of the Colony for the year 1881 was as under:—

		$
(1) *Annual contribution* now paid to the Imperial Government by the Colony towards the cost of the military stationed in the Straits* ..		235,976
(2) *Upkeep of military posts and works.*—The cost of repairs to the barracks at Singapore, Penang, and Malacca is chargeable to the Colony:—†		
Singapore	$15,356	
Penang	7,433	
Malacca	662	
		23,451
(3) *Lodging allowance and rent of officers' quarters:*—*		
Singapore	$1,924	
Penang..	276	
Malacca	320	
		2,520
(4) *Police guard at powder magazine, Sepoy Lines, Singapore**		735
(5) *Grant to Singapore Volunteer Corps:*—‡		
Arms, equipment, clothing, ammunition, &c.	$ 29	
Salary of drill instructors	600	
		629
Total		$263,311

* Charged under Item 20, Abstract of Expenditure.
† „ „ 17, „ „
‡ „ „ 16, „ „

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Public Debt.

The Colony borrowed in 1877 a sum of £100,000 on 4½ per cent. debentures.

The debt is being gradually repaid by means of a sinking fund at 5½ per cent., and on the 31st December, 1881, had been reduced to £77,100.

Municipal Revenues.

Municipal revenue and expenditure.

The Revenue and Expenditure of the Municipalities of Singapore, Penang, and Malacca, for the year 1881, were as follows:—

		$
Singapore	Revenue	303,774
	Expenditure	287,469
	Debt	120,000
Penang	Revenue	142,848
	Expenditure	124,903
	Debt	101,700
Malacca	Revenue	29,986
	Expenditure	21,462
	Debt	Nil.

Sources of municipal revenues.

The Municipal Revenues are derived from the following sources:—

Assessment on houses at the rate of 10 per cent. per annum.
„ „ lands „ 5 „ „
Taxes on horses and vehicles.
Licenses on offensive and dangerous trades.
Water Rates (in Singapore and Penang).
Rent of markets, ghants, &c.

Details of expenditure of municipalities.

The expenditure of the Municipalities may be classed as follows:—

General administration and conservancy.
Maintenance of roads, streets, and bridges within a certain radius of the towns.
Contribution to Government towards maintenance of Police Force (*see* Abstract of General Revenue, Item 9).
Waterworks.
Works and Buildings, &c.

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Section N.—MONEYS, WEIGHTS, AND MEASURES.

Currency.

All accounts are kept in dollars and cents. The rate of exchange for the adjustment of Government accounts between England and the Colony is 3*s*. 9*d*.

Silver coins. The silver coins in circulation are dollars and twenty, ten, and five cent. pieces.

The dollar issued from Her Majesty's mint in Hong Kong, and the silver dollars of America, Spain, Mexico, Peru, Bolivia, and Japan are all counted a legal tender.

The silver coins representing fractional parts of a dollar form a legal tender for any sum not exceeding two dollars.

Copper coins. The copper coins are cents, half, and quarter cents. They are legal tender for any sum not exceeding one dollar.

The amount of coin in circulation cannot be ascertained.

Paper currency. The average amount of paper currency in circulation during the year 1881 was—

Singapore.

	$
Oriental Bank Corporation	303,537
Chartered Mercantile Bank of India, London, and China ..	711,994
Chartered Bank of India, Australia, and China	869,183
Hong Kong and Shanghai Banking Corporation	165,625

Penang.

Chartered Mercantile Bank of India, London, and China ..	534,805
Chartered Bank of India, Australia, and China	442,280

These banks are bound by the terms of their charters of incorporation to maintain specie to the extent of one-third of the amount of the issue of notes.

Barter. There is no system of barter in dealing with the natives for their goods.

Weights.

Commercial Weight.

Commercial weight.

16 Tahil	= 1 Kati	= 1⅓ lbs. avoirdupois.	
100 Kati	= 1 Pikul	= 133⅓	„ „
3 Pikul	= 1 Bhara	= 400	„ „
40 Pikul	= 1 Koyan	= 5,333⅓	„ „

Note.—The Kati of 1⅓ lbs. avoirdupois is known as the *Chinese* Kati. There is another weight, known as the *Malay* Kati, which was probably the original standard, and which is still in partial use at Penang. The weight is that of 24 Spanish dollars, or 9,984 grains. This gives 142·628 pounds as the weight of the Pikul, and 5705·143 pounds as the weight of the Koyan.

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Goldsmiths' Weight.

Goldsmiths' weight.

12 Saga = 1 Mayam = 52 grains.
16 Mayam = 1 Bongkal = 832 „ (two Spanish dollars).
12 Bongkal = 1 Kati = 9,984 „ (1 lb. 8 oz. 16 dwts.).

Opium Weight.

Opium weight.

10 Tee = 1 Hoon.
10 Hoon = 1 Chee.
10 Chee = 1 Tahil.

MEASURES.

Measures of Capacity.

Measures of capacity.

4 Pau = 1 Chupak.
4 Chupak = 1 Gantang.
10 Gantang = 1 Para.
16 Gantang = 1 Nalih.
10 Nalih = 1 Kencha.
5 Kencha = 1 Koyan.*
800 Gantang = 1 Koyan.*
20 Gantang of rice = 1 bag.

NOTE.—The capacity of the Chupak is not uniform at the three Settlements. The variations are shown in the following statement.

	Contents in Cubic Inches.	Weight of Contents in Distilled Water (Ounce Averdupois).
Singapore Chupak	55·455	32
Penang „	67·912	39·188
Malacca „	62·386	36
English Quart	69·3185	40
French Litre	61·028	35·216

Long Measure.

Long measure.

The measure in use in the Settlements is the English yard (termed the *Ela*), with its divisions and multiples, but the native terms, as shown in the following table, are still in use.

4 Plempap = 1 Jenghal = 9 inches.
2 Jengkal = 1 Hasta = 18 „
4 Hasta = 1 Depa = 72 „
2 Depa = 1 Jemba = 144 „
20 Jemba = 1 Orlong = 2,880 „

NOTE.—The equivalents in *inches* as above stated are what are now attributed to these terms, but originally the Jengkal had no more definite meaning than a *span*: the Hasta was the *length of the fore arm*, and the Depa the *stretch of the two arms*.

Square Measure.

Square measure.

Land is measured by the English acre with its divisions, but the native terms are still in use, as shown in the following table.

1 Square Jemba = 144 square feet.
400 Square Jemba = 1 Square Orlong = 1½ acre (nearly).
1 Lelong = 2,400 square feet.
24 Lelong = 1 Square Orlong = 1½ acre (nearly).

* Taking the *Gantang* at the dimensions given to it at Singapore and Penang, no relation can be established between the Koyan of weight and the Koyan of capacity.

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Section O.—ARMY.

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Section P.—NAVY.

[*This Section, being of a confidential nature, is published separately.*]

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Section Q.—BOOKS OF REFERENCE, &c.

BOOKS.

Author, &c.	Title.	Remarks.
Admiralty ..	*China Sea Directory;* published by order of the Lords Commissioners of the Admiralty. 2 vols. London, 1878.	Contains sailing directions for the Straits of Malacca, with detailed information regarding the approaches to Singapore, Malacca, Penang, &c.
Begbie ..	*The Malayan Peninsula,* embracing its History, Manners and Customs of the Inhabitants, Politics, Natural History, &c. By Captain J. P. Begbie, Madras Artillery. Madras, 1834.	
Cameron ..	*Our Tropical Possessions in Malayan India:* being a Descriptive Account of Singapore, Penang, Province Wellesley and Malacca, their Peoples, Products, Commerce, and Government. By John Cameron, Esq., F.R.G.S. London, 1865.	
Crawfurd ..	*History of the Indian Archipelago;* containing an Account of the Manners, Arts, Languages, Religions, Institutions, and Commerce of its Inhabitants. By John Crawfurd, F.R.S. 3 vols. Edinburgh, 1820.	This book was afterwards re-compiled and compressed into one volume—Crawfurd's Dictionary.
Crawfurd ..	*A Descriptive Dictionary* of the Indian Islands and Adjacent Countries. By John Crawfurd, F.R.S. London, 1856.	A most useful work of reference regarding all matters—political, geographical, or scientific—connected with the Malayan countries. It includes the whole of *Malaya,* from Sumatra to the Phillipines and New Guinea. It must, however, be stated that the author had, in common with others in the Straits in 1824, when he was a resident, less acquaintance with the Malay Peninsula than with any of the other districts which he describes.

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Author, &c.	Title.	Remarks.
Earl ..	*The Eastern Seas;* or, Voyages and Adventures in the Indian Archipelago in 1832, 33, 34; comprising a tour of the Island of Java, visits to Borneo, the Malay Peninsula, Siam, &c.; also an account of the present state of Singapore, with observations on the commercial resources of the Archipelago. By George Windsor Earl, R.A.S. London, 1837.	
Logan ..	*The Journal of the Indian Archipelago and Eastern Asia.* Edited by J. R. Logan, F.R.S., &c., &c. 12 vols. Singapore, 1847–62.	This is a valuable series of journals ably edited by Mr. J. R. Logan, who is generally held to be the highest authority on all the subjects upon which he personally wrote in this journal. Both from his pen and from other contributors a good deal of information is to be obtained, particularly in Vols. I. to III., respecting the physical geography of the Peninsula, as well as upon many other subjects of a scientific character. A complete index for the whole series is now being undertaken by the new branch of the Asiatic Society established at Singapore.
McNair ..	*Perak and the Malays; or, Sarong and Kris.* By Major Fred. McNair, R.A., C.M.G., Colonial Engineer and Surveyor-General, S.S., &c. London, 1878.	
Newbold ..	*Political and Statistical Account* of the British Settlements in the Straits of Malacca, viz., Penang, Malacca, and Singapore, with a history of the Malayan States on the Peninsula of Malacca. By I. J. Newbold, Esq., Lieut. 23rd M.L.I., &c., &c. 2 vols. London, 1839.	This book still remains the standard work on Malacca and its vicinity; it contains a particularly useful and reliable account of the "Naning War," as to which the author, though not himself engaged, had the best means of forming an opinion. He was stationed as staff officer in the territory occupied immediately after, and in consequence of, the military operations. Lieut. Newbold is also considered a high authority on matters connected with Malay customs and traditions.

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Author, &c.	Title.	Remarks.
Popham ..	*A Description of Prince of Wales Island in the Straits of Malacca*, with its real and probable advantages and sources to recommend it as a marine establishment. By Sir Home Popham, Capt. R.N., F.R.S., &c. London, 1805.	
Raffles ..	*Memoir of the Life and Public Services of Sir Stamford Raffles*, F.R.S., &c., &c., particularly in the Government of Java, 1811–16; Bencoolen and its dependencies, 1817–24; with details of the commerce and resources of the Eastern Archipelago, &c. 2 vols. London, 1835.	
Sherard-Osborn	*Quedah*; or Stray Leaves from a Journal in Malayan Waters. By Captain Sherard-Osborn, R.N., C.B., &c. London, 1857.	
Straits Asiatic Society	*Journal of the Straits Branch of the Royal Asiatic Society.* Published half-yearly, Singapore, from 1879.	This is a Journal of a new branch of the Royal Asiatic Society, established in Singapore towards the end of 1877. The object with which it was promoted was to collect and print information regarding the Malay Peninsula and neighbouring countries (Malayan), and more especially in regard to the little-known geography of the Peninsula. Considerable additions to the knowledge we possess of Perak, Pahang, and Johor, are to be found recorded in the numbers already published.

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Official Publications.

Title.	Remarks.
Papers laid before Parliament:—	
Correspondence respecting the Transfer of the Control of the Straits Settlements, from the India Office to the Colonial Office. 1866.	
Papers relating to Recent Proceedings at Selangor, consequent upon the seizure by Pirates of a Junk, &c. 1872. *Command*, 466.	
Correspondence relating to the Affairs of certain Native States in the Malay Peninsula. 1874. *Command*, 1111.	
Further Correspondence, &c. 1875. *Command*, 1320.	Contains despatches describing the operations in Sungei Ujong in 1874.
Further Correspondence, &c. 1876. *Command*, 1505.	Contains despatches describing the operations in Perak and Sungei Ujong in 1875–6.
Further Correspondence, &c. 1876. *Command*, 1510.	
Further Correspondence, &c. 1876. *Command*, 1512.	Contains despatches describing the operations in Perak and Sungei Ujong in 1875–6.
Further Correspondence, &c. 1877. *Command*, 1709.	
Instructions to Residents, relating to the protected Malay States. 1879. *Command*, 2410.	
Papers relating to the protected Malay States. 1881. *Command*, 3095.	
Government Records. Straits Settlements.	
Government Gazette. From 1862.*	
Straits Settlements Blue Book. From 1867.	Issued annually at Singapore. Contains detailed statements of the Statistics of the Colony.
Legislative Council Papers. From 1867.	

* *Vide* also "Local Publications," Sec. I., page 49.

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PENANG AND PROVINCE WELLESLEY.

Section A.—GEOGRAPHY.

PENANG. — SITUATION. — EXTENT. — MOUNTAINS. — STREAMS.— PHYSICAL ASPECT.— SETTLEMENTS.— GEOLOGY.— SUBDIVISIONS.

PROVINCE WELLESLEY.—SITUATION.—BOUNDARIES.—EXTENT. PHYSICAL ASPECT.—RIVERS.—SUBDIVISIONS.

The most northerly of the three Settlements is Penang, consisting of the island of that name, and the Province of Wellesley on the adjoining mainland.

PENANG.

Position. The Island of Penang, or Prince of Wales' Island, called also by the Malays Pulau Pinang, from the resemblance which they think it bears to the areca or betel nut, lies in lat. 5° N. and

Extent. long. 100° 21′ E. (site of the capital). It is about 15 miles long and varies in breadth from 12 miles at its northern end to about 8 miles at its southern extremity; its area is 68,402 acres. It is separated from the mainland by a channel about two miles wide only, opposite the north-eastern part of the island, but gradually opening out to the southward till it attains a maximum width of eight or nine miles. In the southern part of the channel is the lofty and thickly wooded Island of Jeraga, separated from Penang by a deep but narrow strait.

Mountains. The Island of Penang is very hilly. Its interior may be said to consist of a mass of hills which rise steeply from the water's edge in the north-east, gradually increase in height towards the centre, and then decline in elevation as they approach the south-western extremity. The highest peaks are West Hill, 2,713 feet, Bel Retiro or Government Hill, 2,550 feet, and Mount Elvira, 2,384 feet.

On both sides of this range level plains extend to the coasts. The plain on the east side, called the Valley, is nearly three miles in breadth, and on it is situated the capital, George Town. That on the west side is less extensive.

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There is no river of any magnitude, but several streams of excellent water descend from the hills into the sea. The principal are the Penang River which waters the Valley and falls into the harbour a little south of George Town, the Cluang, near the mouth of which James Town is built, and the Soonghy Rusa which waters the western plain. Streams.

The plains as well as the hills, where cultivation does not interfere, are clothed with jungle brushwood, with here and there a patch of the tall forest trees which once covered the whole island. A belt of cocoa-nut trees fringes the shore, and scattered over the island are groves of the areca palm. Physical aspect.

The east side of the island is low and swampy and well adapted for rice cultivation; the southern and western valleys are drier, and laid out in pepper and spice plantations. The slopes of the hills are in great part cleared and planted with nutmegs and cloves, and on the summits of many stand the bungalows of the European residents.

Besides the capital, George Town, there is only one considerable assemblage of houses, called James' Town on the sea-shore, opposite the Island of Jeraga, but numerous small villages and Malay "Topes" are scattered over the island, especially on the east and south sides, often beautifully situated on the coast or amidst spice groves in the valleys. Settlements.

The hills of Penang are composed entirely of a fine grey granite, except some near the coast which consist of laterite. The subsoil of the valleys and plains is formed by the decomposition of the rock below, and of detritus washed down from the mountains. Geology.

Penang is divided into four districts, viz: Tanjong Penagri Tanjong Tokong, Baian Lepas, and Balik Pulau. Sub-divisions.

Province Wellesley.

Province Wellesley is a tract of territory on the mainland, opposite to Penang, extending about 45 miles along the coast, and from 8 to 10 miles inland. Situation.

It is surrounded by the country of Kedah on the north and east, and by the State of Perak on the south. On the north it is separated from Kedah by the Mudah river, and till lately the Krian formed its southern boundary; but within the last few years a district south of this river, called the Transkrian, was ceded to England, and now forms part of the Province. Boundaries.

The area of the territory between the Mudah and Krian rivers is 151,000 acres, and that of the Transkrian district, 30,000, making a total of 181,000 acres. Extent.

Three-fourths of the Province consists of an alluvial plain only some few feet above the level of the sea, very fertile and cultivated for sugar and rice. The highest hill is that of Martagani, 800 feet, about the centre of the country. The whole of the coast line is lined by a shoal mud-bank. Physical aspect.

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Rivers.

Province Wellesley is watered by several rivers, five of which are of considerable volume. Their banks are fringed with Mangrove swamp.

The *Mudah*, which forms the northern boundary of the territory, is its largest river. Even at its lowest, it is a considerable stream. Between the Mudah and the Pry, which disembogues nearly opposite to George Town, are several creeks or streams which permit small boats to reach the native villages that line their banks.

The *Pry* is over 200 yards wide at its mouth, and, though obstructed by a bar, is navigable by vessels drawing 10 or 12 feet of water for nearly 10 miles inland. At this point it suddenly changes from being over 50 yards in width, to a narrow creek, encumbered by falling trees and brushwood. Near its mouth, on the northern side, stands Pry Town, and numerous small villages line its banks further inland.

About four miles south of the Pry is the *Juru* River, which is about 100 yards wide at its mouth, but rapidly diminishes until at a mile from the sea it becomes a narrow and unnavigable creek. The bar at its mouth too blocks it except to boats.

Four miles further south, behind the two steep islets of North Kra and South Kra, and skirting the northern slope of the small promontory of Batu Kawan, is the mouth of the *Junjong* River, which is navigable to boats about a mile up.

The *Krîan* River has a large volume of water and is navigable for a considerable distance beyond the British inland boundary, affording a valuable outlet to the products of the native States of the interior. There is a depth of water of not less than 2 fathoms over the bar at low tide, and from 3 to 5 fathoms inside.

Off the rivers enumerated are numerous tributaries or creeks.

Sub-divisions.

Province Wellesley is divided into the following five districts: Mudah, Telok Ayar Tawar, Pry, Juru, and Transkrian.

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Section B.—HARBOURS, ROADSTEADS, &c.

PENANG HARBOUR. — ANCHORAGE. — TIDES. — APPROACHES. — PORT OF GEORGE TOWN.—COAST OF PENANG.—PORT OF PROVINCE WELLESLEY. — COAST OF PROVINCE WELLESLEY. —CHART.

Penang harbour.

The almost land-locked strait which separates Penang from Province Wellesley forms the common harbour for both places, in so far at least as the larger shipping is concerned, each having its own landing place and port for small vessels, the former at George Town and the latter at Pry Town.

The harbour or roadstead is of great extent, with good and secure anchorage; its waters are placid almost throughout the entire year, the periodical monsoons being only slightly felt, and the winds partaking more of the character of land and sea breezes.

As a commercial and maritime station, Penang has many advantages. It serves as an entrepôt for the various products of China, the Eastern Islands, and the Straits, the native merchants from which take back in return British and Indian goods. There is always to be found in it a large fleet of vessels of every rig. During the Burmese war, Penang formed a rendezvous for the British Squadron in the Indian seas, for which purpose its position, salubrity, and abundant supplies made it well adapted. The Dutch, in the Acheen war, obtained nearly all their supplies here.

Anchorage.

Vessels usually ride at anchor nearly opposite George Town, Here there are soundings of from 12 to 14 fathoms in mid-channel, 6 or 7 fathoms near the Malay shore, and 9 or 10 fathoms near the Fort Point, which has deep water quite close to it. The best anchorage for a large ship is about a quarter of a mile to the southward of the Point, in 10 or 11 fathoms of water, and for smaller vessels closer to the town. The usual anchorage for men-of-war is some little distance to the north of the Point, in about 12 fathoms of water.

In addition to this, the usual roadstead, the entire extent of the bag-like channel to the southward of George Town, as far as the extremity of the island, offers a secure and favourable haven.

Tides.

The tides are more regular on both sides of the Point than immediately abreast of it. During the "springs" they rise 9 feet and run 3 knots an hour. During "neaps" the rise is 7½ feet. When storms rage at sea the tides are affected and become irregular in their course through the Strait, sometimes running for

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several days with great rapidity in one direction and then changing to the other.

Approaches to the harbour.

The northern approach to the roadstead is safer and easier than the southern one, especially for large vessels. These accordingly, when leaving the harbour generally go out by the north channel, even when bound to the southward. The south channel is marked out by two lines of beacons, white on the east side and red on the west. Its greatest breadth navigable for vessels drawing 18 feet of water is little over 2,000 yards.

Port of George Town.

There is no wharf or pier at George Town at which large ships can lie, cargo being loaded and discharged by means of lighters. It was at one time contemplated to form here an extensive arsenal and ship-building yard, and about the beginning of the present century several vessels were built at George Town, but the project was ultimately abandoned. The present small jetty is quite inadequate to the requirements of the place, and it is contemplated to construct a suitable wharf.

But little coal is kept at Penang.

Coast of Penang.

Almost the whole of the eastern coast of Penang is lined with soft mud banks which are dry at low tide, and, as the sea is usually quite calm, there is but little difficulty in landing from boats almost anywhere between the N.E. and S.E. points of the island. Most of the streams, even at low water, keep open a channel through the mud-banks practicable for small boats. A good road runs north and south from George Town close along the shore to both extremities of the island.

Port of Province Wellesley.

The harbour of Province Wellesley is Pry Town, at the mouth of the river of that name. It possesses a dock capable of taking in vessels of moderate size, having a length of 250 feet, width at entrance of 40 feet, and depth of 17 feet.

The Pry is navigable by vessels drawing 10 or 12 feet of water for a few miles inland, and was formerly a favourite resort of pirates.

Coast of Province Wellesley.

The shores of Province Wellesley are, like the eastern coast of Penang, low and easy of approach in small boats; but the swampy nature of much of the country near the coast renders communication inland somewhat difficult except by the waterways offered by the rivers and streams.

Charts.

The chart of Penang Harbour (No. 1366) is on a scale of $\frac{1}{7500}$, corrected up to 1879.

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Section C.—COMMUNICATIONS.

PENANG.—ROADS.—RIVERS.—TELEGRAPHS.—MAIL SERVICE.—TRANSPORT ANIMALS AND VEHICLES.

PROVINCE WELLESLEY.—ROADS.—RIVERS.

PENANG.

Roads.

Roads. Penang possesses an excellent system of road communication throughout the whole of the cleared parts of the island. Nearly all the roads are metalled, and they are for the most part planted on either side with rows of Angsana or other shady trees, which afford a grateful protection from the rays of the sun.

The main thoroughfares are—

(1) From George Town to Government Hill and West Hill.

For some distance from the town, neat little Malay cottages with enclosures of fruit-trees, cocoa-nut and sugar-canes are passed. Further on, though lying back from the road, are the large nutmeg plantations of the Ayer Itam and Ayer Rajah estates. About three miles out a smaller road diverges, and here an hotel has been built. From this point the ascent to Goverment Hill becomes steep and winding, very difficult for wheeled carriages of any kind. Half-way up this steep ascent a branch road diverges to the left, and winds up to the Highlands of Scotland (1,724 feet), the main road continuing upwards through a ravine with wooded hills on either side until the Bel Retiro or Government Hill (2,550 feet) is reached. The distance from George Town is about 6 miles. On the top of the hill are situated a Government house, a convalescent bungalow, and about a dozen merchants' bungalows. From this point there is a very extensive view, extending over great part of the island and the roadstead, with the shores and level plains of Province Wellesley beyond.

From Government Hill the road sweeps round the head of a deep valley to West Hill, the highest point in the island (2,713 feet).

(2) Another excellent road runs along the whole eastern coast, northward from George Town to Mount Erskine and Tekoos Bay, and southward from George Town through Glugar Ooban and James Town to the southern coast. This road passes over level

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ground, and gives access to the spice plantations and rice fields which cover almost the whole eastern side of the island.

(3) A third road leads out from George Town between the two just described, and passing through the gap which separates Mount Elvira from the Pentland Ridges, goes on to China Bazaar in the centre of the western plain. Thence it continues round the foot of the Southern Ridge until it joins the East Coast Road.

(4.) Another road traverses the Ayar Ettam Valley, joining at both ends the central road just described.

Besides these main thoroughfares there are many roads of less consequence, especially in the vicinity of the town.

Railways.

Railways. There are no railways existing or proposed.

Rivers and Canals.

The rivers of Penang are small, and of no importance as means of communication, except that their mouths, in most cases, offer favourable landing places for small craft.

There are no canals.

Telegraphs.

Penang has telegraphic communication with India on the one hand and with Malacca and Singapore on the other, and, through them, with Europe and Australia. There are also small local lines for the convenience of the port and the public.

Mail Service.

The mail service to Europe, Ceylon, and China is by the P. and O. steamers, which touch once a fortnight; to Calcutta, by the British India Company's steamers, also once a fortnight, &c. (*see also* page 23). Local steamers run to Singapore five times a week.

Transport Animals and Vehicles.

A return of transport animals and vehicles for the Straits Settlements has been given under (Singapore, Sec. C, pages 24–25). For use on the Peninsula, elephants can be obtained from the chiefs of the country.

PROVINCE WELLESLEY.

Roads.

Since the territory came into British possession it has been largely intersected with roads, the chief of which run longitudinally from Pry Town to the northern and southern boundaries. From them branch off numerous minor roads, running towards the beach on the one hand and towards the eastern boundary line on the other. The trunk roads are metalled. The traffic on the cross roads is not sufficient to warrant so large an expenditure.

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There are, in many places along the roads, good encamping grounds on the high sandy ridges which cross the plains.

Rivers.

The rivers in Province Wellesley (*see* page 93) are the chief highways of the country.

Boats and steam launches are readily procurable. During the Perak war, however, it was found necessary to have flat-bottomed boats constructed at Singapore for the shallows of the Perak river.

Railways.

There are no railways; conveyance by water being so easy they are scarcely wanted.

Telegraphs and Mail Service.

As for Penang (*see* page 82).

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Section D.—TOWNS.

George Town.—James Town.—Pry Town.

George Town.

The only place of importance in Penang is the capital, properly styled George Town, but more generally known by the name of the Island. It is situated on the north-eastern angle of the island at the narrowest part of the Strait. The site of the town is a perfectly level sandy plain. It occupies an area of 480 acres.

Streets.

Of late years great improvements have been made in the laying out of the streets. These are straight, wide, and at right angles; the principal thoroughfares being parallel to the sea front, with minor streets branching off from them. The houses are generally two-storied and brick-built, with tiled roofs, like those of Singapore, but the town is perhaps less compact and more diversified—small attap-covered native huts being frequently close to handsome European buildings.

Fort Cornwallis occupies a point at the northern end of the town. Adjoining it are the public buildings; then come the English merchants' houses of business and the Chinamen's European stores, and beyond them are streets of Chinese shops and Klings' bazaars. The European Government officials and merchants reside in bungalows, which stretch along the beach northwards from the fort.

Public buildings.

The principal public buildings are—a handsome church, an Armenian chapel, two Roman Catholic chapels, a court-house, Government offices, a town hall (in course of erection), a public school, a civil hospital, a poor-house, four markets (these are indifferent). A new gaol is being built, which will give cellular accommodation for 200 prisoners. There are also various military buildings, as barracks, hospital, &c., which will be further referred to under Section E.

Water supply.

Water from a mountain spring is led into the town in iron pipes, and is laid on in the streets.

Sanitary arrangements.

The sanitary arrangements are under the control of the municipality. Efficient drainage is rendered difficult by the flatness of the site of the town, as also by the occasional spring tides which flush the leading drains and prevent their emptying.

Along the sides of some of the chief streets in the native part of the town run stone-built gutters from 1 to 2 feet in width and depth, which are ostensibly for the purpose of rapidly draining the streets after the heavy showers which are so frequent here, but which are actually used for the temporary lodgment of house

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refuse, which is removed on occasion by a numerically insufficient staff of town scavengers. One of the chief safeguards against the collection of much putrescent material in and about the buildings is to be found in the value which the Chinese agriculturist puts upon it, so that private cultivators arrange with the house owners to remove their refuse regularly.

Although Penang cannot be considered, from a sanitary point of view, a clean town, it does not appear to be liable to epidemics.

Inhabitants. The population of the town, according to the census of 1881, was 43,565, comprising 211 Europeans and Americans, 26,716 Chinese, 9,919 natives of India, 2,923 Malays, &c. (*see* page 96).

Malays chiefly occupy the country districts.

Municipal institutions. The municipal affairs of Penang are managed by a local board, which has a similar constitution to that of Singapore (*see* page 29.)

James Town. The only other place of any importance is James Town, a considerable native village situated on the sea shore, opposite to the Island of Jeraja. Scattered over the island are numerous small native hamlets, with occasionally a cluster of plantation buildings.

Province Wellesley.

Pry Town. There are no towns in Province Wellesley. The chief place is Pry Town, situated on the right bank of the river of that name near its confluence with the sea, but at present it is scarcely more than a mere village. As mentioned in Section B, a dock has been constructed at the mouth of the river.

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Section E.—FORTS, ARSENALS, STORES, BARRACKS, &c.

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Section F.—DOCKYARDS AND NAVAL ESTABLISHMENTS.

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Section G.—CLIMATE.

PENANG.—SEASONS.—RAINFALL.—RANGE OF THERMOMETER.—CLIMATE AS AFFECTING HEALTH.—SANITARIA.

PROVINCE WELLESLEY.—CLIMATE.—ABSTRACT OF METEOROLOGICAL OBSERVATIONS.

Seasons.

Owing to the vicinity of Penang to the Bay of Bengal, the influence of the regular monsoons is more distinctly felt there than at any of the other Straits Settlements.

The prevailing winds are therefore north-east from November to March, and south-west from May to September.

The rainy season is from September to November; but neither rains nor droughts are of long continuance, for refreshing showers fall at short intervals throughout the year, except during January, February, and March.

Rainfall.

The annual rainfall on the plains rarely exceeds 65 inches, that on the hills generally measures over 100 inches; the average for the whole island is about 75 inches.

Range of thermometer.

In the highlands the thermometer ranges from 64° to 76°, and in the plains from 76° to 90°, the mean temperature of the island being 82°.

Climate as affecting health.

The lowland or "valley" of Penang does not compare advantageously in point of climate with either Malacca or Singapore; but except in a few places it is considered to be healthy. An invigorating sea-breeze is to be felt throughout the year in the fort and along the beach to the north-west of it. Further inland the air circulates much less freely, and in some of the more confined valleys malaria prevails. The inland houses, however, if open and well ventilated, are cool and refreshing at night.

On the high grounds only six miles from the town the climate is most invigorating and eminently healthful; it is said to resemble very much that of Madeira.

Penang is not subject to epidemics. Cholera is unknown, and dysentery is infrequent. The liability to liver disease is probably less than in England. In some of the low-lying places ague prevails. Lepers are numerous.

Sanitaria.

On the top of Penang Hill is a convalescent bungalow, at an altitude of 2,700 feet above sea level. It has been recommended that a sanatarium should be established here for the treatment of invalid soldiers from Burmah, Singapore, and Hong Kong, for which the climate appears to be admirably suited.

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Province Wellesley.

Climate.

The climate of Province Wellesley is hot, the mean temperature being about 80°, but on the whole is not unhealthy, at least near the coast; further inland malarious fever is said to prevail.

Rain falls in quantities nearly as great as on the hills of Penang, though there are occasional and pretty long droughts. A heavy and refreshing dew can always be depended upon at night time, even in the hottest weather and during the longest droughts.

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Abstract of Meteorological Observations at Penang for the Year 1881.

Months.	Barometrical Readings corrected and reduced to 32° F.			Hygrometer.						Self-Registering Thermometer.				Rainfall during the Month (Central Prison).
				9 a.m.		3 p.m.		9 p.m.		Maximum in Sun's Rays on Grass.	Minimum on Grass.	Maximum in Shade.	Minimum in Shade.	
	9 a.m.	3 p.m.	9. p.m.	Dry.	Wet.	Dry.	Wet.	Dry.	Wet.					
	Inches.	Inches.	Inches.	°F.	°F.	°F.	°F.	°F.	°F.	°F.	°F.	°F.	°F.	Inches.
January	30·033	29·987	30·030	81·1	78·1	86·2	79·2	79·4	77·5	156·2	65·8	89·5	73·1	1·22
February.....	30·032	29·970	30·030	83·1	79·6	86·9	80·6	80·9	79·0	159·0	65·8	92·9	75·0	2·09
March	30·020	29·900	30·035	83·7	80·1	87·0	82·2	81·1	79·0	159·6	63·5	92·7	75·1	5·44
April	30·012	29·934	30·032	84·0	80·7	87·4	82·8	80·5	78·5	159·9	65·5	91·4	78·1	8·97
May	29·978	29·948	29·980	82·7	80·3	86·2	83·6	79·2	77·3	152·9	...	90·7	79·6	9·03
June.....	29·808	29·934	29·994	84·3	82·0	86·4	83·8	80·7	78·3	147·9	...	89·5	79·0	4·85
July	29·968	29·595	30·025	83·0	80·0	85·7	80·8	80·8	78·5	148·1	...	89·1	75·4	9·63
August.....	29·957	29·895	29·970	83·0	80·8	85·8	83·3	80·0	77·9	155·8	...	89·2	75·1	5·64
September ...	29·965	29·931	30·014	83·0	80·6	84·6	82·2	80·5	77·9	146·6	...	87·3	75·3	14·57
October	30·003	29·928	30·024	82·3	79·7	84·4	81·3	80·5	77·2	144·8	...	87·1	74·4	21·54
November ...	29·901	29·887	30·000	83·6	81·2	86·3	82·9	80·8	78·0	154·1	...	89·1	74·4	8·36
December ...	29·941	29·908	30·014	83·7	80·9	85·7	82·6	80·3	77·3	147·2	...	89·3	74·1	9·46
													Total	100·80

The Barometrical readings are corrected and reduced to 32° F. from the 17th February.
Average daily maximum temperature in sun for the year ... ... 152·3°
" " " shade " ... ... 89·8
" mean nightly temperature for the year ... ... 73·7

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Section H.—AGRICULTURE, PRODUCTIONS, TRADE, &c.

AGRICULTURE AND VEGETABLE PRODUCTIONS OF PENANG.—DITTO OF PROVINCE WELLESLEY.—AGRICULTURAL STATISTICS.—DOMESTIC ANIMALS.—WILD ANIMALS.—BIRDS.—REPTILES.—FISH, CRUSTACEA AND MOLLUSCA.—FISHERIES.—SUPPLIES.—MINERALS.—MANUFACTURES.—TRADE.—SHIPPING.

Agriculture and vegetable productions of Penang Island.

The soil of Penang is, on the whole, favourable for the cultivation of almost all kinds of tropical productions, and yields abundantly.

Rice is sown in the wet season, and is reaped in February or March; in seasons sufficiently moist, the seed often yields seventy-five fold; in unsuccessful years the deficiency in rice is made up for by plantains and bananas. Maize is the only other cereal cultivated. Some spices, in particular, seem to flourish here better than in any other part of the world; nutmegs, cloves, peppers, pimento, and ginger grow luxuriantly, and two crops of pepper are gathered annually, one in January and the other in June. Tobacco, coffee, and cotton are raised only for home consumption. The cocoa-nut and areca-nut are largely cultivated. The sugar-cane thrives, and the tea-plant grows wild.

Many of the ordinary kitchen vegetables of Europe are abundant and cheap; native products include yams and sweet potatoes, and amongst fruits the mangosteen, rambutan, durian, guava, pineapple, orange, lime, mulberry, grape, &c.

Amongst large timber trees are the teak, murhowe, wood-oil or dammer tree, caoutchouc, cypress, and numerous varieties of bamboos and rattans, besides curious and gigantic ferns.

Agriculture and vegetable productions of Province Wellesley.

Province Wellesley is the most productive of the British possessions in the Straits, possessing many tracts of the richest alluvial soil well suited for the growth of cereals. A few sandy strips also occur, especially well calculated for cocoa-nut cultivation. Its vegetable and agricultural products are very similar to those of Penang, the principal being rice, pepper, sugar, cocoa-nuts, betel-nuts and tapioca. An attempt has recently been made with some success to cultivate the tea-plant.

Agricultural statistics.

The following details, regarding the agriculture of the Settlement, are taken from the Colonial Blue Book for 1881:—

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CULTIVATED AND UNCULTIVATED LAND.

——	Estimated Acreage of Cultivated Land.	Estimated Acreage of Uncultivated Land.	Estimated Acreage of the Colony.
Penang and Province Wellesley.	168,190	51,212	219,402
Trans Krian	..	..	10,800

NATURE AND EXTENT OF CROPS.

——	Nutmegs and Cloves.	Padi.	Fruit-trees, Cocoa-nuts, and Gardens.	Betel nut.	Tapioca.	Sugar cane.	Number of Acres in Crop.
	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Trees.	Acres.	Acres.	
Penang Island .	700	9,000	22,000	500,000	nil.	500	178,000, including Transkrian.
Province Wellesley.	..	45,000	25,000	500,000	1,600	10,000	

In 1881 there were produced in Province Wellesley 31,000 pikuls of tapioca, and 164,000 pikuls of sugar-cane.

Domestic animals. Buffaloes and cattle are extensively reared for dairy or farm purposes, and hogs in great numbers by the Chinese for food. Sheep cannot be reared, but are imported. Poultry are plentiful, especially in Province Wellesley.

The return of stock for 1881 was as follows:—

	Horses.	Horned Cattle.	Sheep.	Goats.
Penang Island	849	2,627	78	2,015
Province Wellesley ..	354	6,968	49	2,624

For details of transport, see Table, pages 24-25.

Wild animals. The last tiger in the island was killed some 25 years ago. Civets and wild cats, monkeys, lemurs, bats, otter, deer, wild oxen, and pigs are abundant. In Province Wellesley the elephant, rhinoceros, and tiger are common.

Birds. Pelicans, pea-fowl, adjutants, &c., are native, as are a great variety of small birds of brilliant plumage, the preparation of which for export to England forms a somewhat important branch of native industry. Quail are to be found wherever there is room for them. Excellent snipe shooting is to be had during five months of the year in the island and in the province.

Reptiles. Small snakes are rarely seen in Penang, but the boa is not uncommon. Numerous varieties of snakes, poisonous and otherwise, are said to be found in Province Wellesley. The sea and river turtle is abundant in Penang, the eggs are much prized by the natives.

Fish, The coast abounds with fish, shell-fish and crustaceans in great

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variety, including pomfret, sole, flounder, whiting, mullet, shark, skate, &c.; oysters and other descriptions of shell-fish, crabs, lobsters, shrimps, &c. crustacea, mollusca.

The number of fishing-boats registered in 1881 was 2,498. The take was estimated at 107,000 tons, valued at $14,390,000. Fisheries.

Penang is the great centre for supplies which come in from Kedah and other native States. Fuel and forage can be had in abundance after due notice. During the Acheen War, the Dutch obtained nearly all their supplies here, which appear to have been equal to the demand for their army and navy. For average price of provisions, see Table, pages 43, 44. Supplies.

Tin-ore is said to be abundant in Penang, but does not seem to be worked. A whitish clay of decomposed felspar, and well adapted for making *kaolin* pottery is very plentiful. Minerals.

In Province Wellesley there are numerous manufactories for the preparation of indigo, oil, and sugar. Manufactures.

For average rate of wages, see Table, page 44.

Soon after its establishment, Penang supplanted Malacca as a commercial centre. It rapidly acquired a monopoly of the trade of the Malayan Peninsula and Sumatra, and had also a large traffic with China, Siam, Borneo, the Celebes, and other places in the Archipelago not reduced to mercantile subjection by the Dutch. No sooner, however, was Singapore established, than Penang, in its turn, declined in importance, as the greater part of the extensive Eastern trade centered at Singapore, and Penang came to depend chiefly on the local trade. Trade.

During the last 30 years the commercial activity of Penang has, as will be seen from the annexed statement, greatly increased, principally in consequence of the opening out of the extensive tin mines in Larut, Selangor, &c.

Year.	Imports. £	Exports. £
1833	427,000	440,000
1843	473,000	549,000
1853	725,000	962,000
1863	1,684,000	2,392,000
1871	3,587,000	3,682,000
1879	3,903,000	4,238,000
1880	3,698,000	3,719,000
1881	3,842,000	3,000,000

Like Singapore and Malacca, Penang is a free port. The only tax to which shipping is liable consists of a very moderate one of 3 cents per ton register, in support of lighthouses.

The trade of the Settlement is chiefly that of transit between Great Britain, British India, and British Burmah on the one hand, and the Malay Peninsula, Singapore, China, and Sumatra on the other. The following details are taken from the Straits Settlements Blue Book for 1881:—

Great Britain.

Imports, $3,200,000.—Specie, cotton goods, and various manufactured articles.

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Exports, $2,400,000.—Tin, sugar, spices, tobacco, gutta-percha and india-rubber, &c.

British India.

Imports, $2,600,000.—Cotton goods, rice, &c.
Exports, $1,100,000.—Spices, tin, &c.

British Burmah.

Imports, $2,400,000.—Rice, &c.
Exports, $1,100,000.—Silks, sugar, cocoa-nuts, &c.

Malay Peninsula.

Imports $4,000,000.—Tin, &c.
Exports, $2,500,000.—Opium, specie, rice, &c.

Singapore and Malacca.

Imports, $2,100,000.—Cotton goods, specie, tobacco, &c.
Exports, $2,400,000.—Tin, rice, spices, copperas, &c.

China.

Imports, $3,100,000.—Silks, specie, wheat, tea, &c.
Exports, $1,400,000.—Tin, sugar, spices, &c.

Sumatra.

Imports, $1,700,000.—Spices, tobacco, rattans, gutta-percha, &c.
Exports, $3,500,000.—Specie, rice, cotton goods, cattle, swine and poultry, &c.

Shipping.

COMPARATIVE STATEMENT OF VESSELS entered at the Port of Penang for the years 1879, 1880, and 1881.

Year	Square-rigged vessels.						Native craft.	
	Sailing vessels.		Steamers.		Total.		Number.	Tonnage.
	Number.	Tonnage.	Number.	Tonnage.	Number.	Tonnage.		
1879	319	70,386	1,397	828,144	1,716	898,530	1,881	53,023
1880	207	50,973	1,453	894,294	1,660	945,267	1,870	51,239
1881	155	39,617	1,518	920,522	1,673	960,139	1,213	33,253

Of the 1,673 vessels entered during 1881, 1,456 were British, 100 Dutch, 47 Siamese, and 33 German.

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Section I.—INHABITANTS.

POPULATION OF PENANG.—DITTO OF PROVINCE WELLESLEY.—PERIODICAL PUBLICATIONS.—DISTRIBUTION OF THE POPULATION.

The census returns of Penang and Province Wellesley, like those of Singapore, show a steady increase of population :—

In 1824 the numbers were	.. ..	48,500
„ 1834 „	.. ..	82,000
„ 1844 „	.. ..	94,000
„ 1854 „	.. ..	113,000
„ 1864 „	.. ..	127,000
„ 1871 „	.. ..	133,000
„ 1881 „	.. ..	188,245*

PENANG.

The population of Penang in 1881 was 90,951,* comprising 45,135 Chinese, 21,772 Malays, 15,528 Klings, and 607 Europeans (*see* table, page 96). Population.

The town, with the exception of one or two streets, is Chinese, and nearly all the wealth and trade of the place is in their hands. Though, as a rule, they show no disposition to resist authority, they are always ready to turn out armed for a party fight (*see* page 47), and on such occasions it has been found necessary to call out the troops to support the civil authorities. The headmen, however, use all their influence for the maintenance of order.

The police force, as at present organised and recruited (*see* Section L.), could not alone be relied upon to restore order in town and country, in the event of a serious outbreak; but a body of mounted police, with a volunteer corps, would suffice to control the Chinese, were the troops withdrawn. The Malays could be depended upon to assist the civil authorities.

PROVINCE WELLESLEY.

The population of Province Wellesley was 97,294, comprising 61,209 Malays, 22,219 Chinese, 11,471 Klings, and 65 Europeans (*see* table, page 96).

The majority of the Malay population are padi planters and fishermen; they also form the greater part of the police force. Though more industrious than those of the same race in other parts (*see* page 9), they are, compared with the Chinese, indolent in the extreme. They never have any ready money, their only care being to get sufficient rice to support them till the next harvest.

In the southern half of the province there is a considerable Chinese population on the sugar estates, and in several villages, which are increasing in size. The rival kongsis (secret societies), give occasional trouble, but they are controlled by the headmen in

* Inclusive of British military.

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Penang, and prompt measures soon restore order. The ordinary coolies, who have lately emigrated from China, know little of our Government, and depend in a great measure on their Chinese employers.

The natives of India are chiefly employed on the sugar estates.

The few Europeans in the province are officials and planters.

The alluvial land to the south of the Krian river, will probably be, in a few years, taken up for padi and sugar, when its population will become similar to that of the rest of the province.

Periodical publications.

The following are the principal periodical publications issued in Penang.

Penang Gazette (bi-weekly)	circulation	160
Daily Advertising Sheet (daily)	„	80
Import and Export List for Chamber of Commerce (daily)	„	30
Market Report for Chamber of Commerce (bi-monthly)	„	280

DISTRIBUTION OF THE POPULATION OF PENANG (exclusive of British Military), 3rd April, 1881.

Nationalities.	Penang.				Province Wellesley.	Total Penang and Province Wellesley.
	Town Division.	Country Division.	Floating Population.	Total Penang.		
Achinese	74	75	28	177	50	227
Africans	1	1	2	4	6	10
Anamese	..	35	..	35	..	35
Arabs	269	251	1	521	53	574
Armenians	26	6	..	32	..	32
Bengalis and other natives of India, not particularised.	672	438	23	1,133	722	1,855
Boyanese	35	18	3	56	2	58
Bugis	7	25	1	33	54	87
Burmese	21	154	22	197	1	198
Chinese	26,716	17,050	1,369	45,135	22,219	67,354
Dyaks	..	..	..	..	1	1
Eurasians	974	358	20	1,352	245	1,597
Europeans and Americans	211	65	133	409	65	474
Japanese	..	3	..	3	1	4
Javanese	437	214	34	685	624	1,309
Jawi Pekans*	2,825	1,660	1	4,486	976	5,462
Jews	32	..	..	32	..	32
Malays	2,923	18,467	382	21,772	61,209	82,981
Manilamen	1	5	..	6	..	6
Parsees	5	..	..	5	..	5
Persians	1	..	..	1	..	1
Siamese	73	181	8	262	314	576
Sinhalese	15	7	..	22	3	25
Tamils	9,247	5,056	92	14,395	10,749	25,144
	44,565	44,069	2,119	90,753	97,294	188,047

* Native half-castes.

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Section K.—HISTORY.

The first British Settlement in the Straits of Malacca was formed at Penang in the year 1786, under the auspices of the Honourable East India Company. The Company had long been desirous of possessing a commercial emporium, but above all a naval station, at the Eastern side of the Bay of Bengal, with the view of watching over and, if possible, counterbalancing the proceedings and influence of their rivals the Dutch, then established at Malacca. The agent they employed for this purpose was a Mr. Francis Light, the master of a merchant vessel, who successfully accomplished his object by concluding an agreement with the owner of Penang, the Rajah of the adjoining state of Kedah, for the cession of the island in consideration of a yearly pension. 1786.

No grave dispute with any foreign power was occasioned by this measure. The Government of Siam, indeed, appears to have raised some objections to the cession on the ground that Kedah, being tributary to that kingdom, had no power to enter independently into any engagement with the British, but these objections were never seriously pressed, and they were eventually settled by a treaty with the Court of Bangkok.

When the island was first occupied it was an entire forest throughout, without a rood of cultivation or an inhabitant, with the exception of a family or two of migrating Malay fishermen; but under the management of Mr. Light the Settlement rapidly acquired importance. A compact little town, with a fort, was built on the point where the expedition had first landed, and in 1789, or within three years of the establishment of the Colony, its founder reported the imports to be of the value of £130,000. 1789.

In 1791 a second treaty was entered into with the Rajah of Kedah, providing that the latter should receive $6,000 per annum, so long as Penang was retained by the British. 1791.

In this year the Colony was called upon to repel a threatened attack. During the month of April, a semi-piratical body of Malays, consisting of 110 boats and a considerable land force, assembled in Province Wellesley, where they raised stockades and sent a defiance to Penang. The challenge was answered by the landing on the 11th of May of a force consisting of one company of Native Artillerymen, two companies of Bengal Sepoys, and 20 European soldiers, under Captain Glass, B.N.I. This small body proceeded at once to attack the enemy's entrenched position, the advance being covered by four gun boats. The Malays were unprepared for such an assault, and after a feeble resistance were broken and driven off.

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At daybreak on the following day, the gun-boats attacked the Malay fleet, which then mustered 200 prahus. They were hotly received at first, but soon compelled the enemy to retreat out of sight of the town.

On the 14th the Malay prahus again appeared, but the gun-boats, supported by a punt on which was mounted an 18-pdr. gun, attacked them a second time, and dispersed them with considerable loss, pursuing them for four miles.

Thus 400 disciplined troops of all arms obtained an easy victory over a force of Malays estimated at between 8,000 and 10,000 men.

The loss of the British during these operations was only four men killed and twenty wounded, that of the enemy was not ascertained.

1792. In 1792, seven years after its foundation, Penang had a population of 7,000 resident inhabitants, or including public establishments and sojourners, 10,000.

The Colony had no regular form of government until the year
1800. 1800, when it was constituted a Lieutenant-Governorship, subordinate to the Bengal administration. The first Lieutenant-Governor, Sir George Leith, soon after his arrival concluded a treaty with the Rajah of Kedah for the cession of Province Wellesley, the stipulation being that the Rajah should receive a pension of $10,000 a year, so long as he was de facto the ruler of the country. This money is still regularly paid to the Rajah's descendants. The principal object of the Company in adding this territory to their possessions, was to protect the island and the traders who visited it from the ravages of pirates, who found in the numerous rivers of the province an ambush from which to pounce upon their victims, as well as a safe retreat from pursuit.

The affairs of Penang from this time rapidly improved. In
1805. 1805 it was constituted a separate presidency, thus ranking with
1810. Madras and Bombay; and in 1810 its population (including Province Wellesley) amounted to 31,600.

The relations of the Penang Government with the native States of the Peninsula, and with Sumatra, may be considered as having been almost uniformly satisfactory. It has been indeed asserted that the Rajah of Kedah, impressed with the belief that he had been deceived by the East India Company regarding the terms of the occupation of Penang, secretly invited, on several occasions, the French, the Dutch, and the Burmans to expel the British, but it is difficult to say whether there is any truth in these statements. At any rate no power, European or Eastern, interfered actively to obtain their removal.

1826. In 1826 the Penang Government concluded a treaty with the Court of Siam, which confirmed the three previous engagements entered into with Kedah, and also provided for the mutual extradition of criminals.

In this year, Penang was incorporated with Singapore and

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Malacca into one Colony, under the title of the Straits Settlements, the seat of government being at first fixed at Penang, which was still by far the largest of the three stations.

In 1828 the limits of Province Wellesley were extended, the Krîan River now forming its southern boundary in place of the Pry. 1828.

In 1836 the seat of the Government of the Straits Settlements was transferred to Singapore, which had now become the most important of the three Colonies, and the administration of Penang was henceforward conducted by a Lieutenant-Governor, subordinate to the central authority at Singapore. 1836.

In 1859 the authority of the East India Company in the Straits was replaced by that of the Crown, and eight years later the Straits Settlements received their present constitution of a Crown Colony. 1859. 1867.

In 1869 a rectification of the eastern frontier of Province Wellesley took place, under a treaty with Kedah, approved by Siam, by which the boundary line was fixed in the position which it at present occupies. 1869.

In 1871 an expedition was despatched from Penang to punish some pirates who had taken refuge in Selangor and there defied the Straits Authorities, and as will be seen (page 52), the object was successfully accomplished. 1871.

It was found that the Krian River formed an extremely inconvenient boundary to Province Wellesley, both with regard to matters of police and of revenue. Accordingly, in 1874, a treaty was concluded by Sir A. Clarke, Governor of the Straits Settlements, with the Rajah and chiefs of Perak, whereby the country on the south bank of the river as far as the watershed (now known as the Transkrian) was incorporated in the Province. 1874.

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Section L.—ADMINISTRATION.

CIVIL ESTABLISHMENT.—LIEUTENANT-GOVERNOR.—CHINESE PROTECTORATE.—ADMINISTRATION OF JUSTICE.—ECCLESIASTICAL DETAILS.—EDUCATION.—HOSPITALS.—POLICE.—PRISONS.—MUNICIPAL COMMISSION.—TENURE OF LAND.

As already mentioned (page 64) Singapore is the seat of Government of the Colony of the Straits Settlements, and all the principal Government officials in Penang are subordinate to the heads of their respective departments in the capital.

Civil establishment.

The civil establishment is as follows :—

Lieutenant-Governor.

Chinese Branch—Assistant Protector of Chinese.

Land Branch—Collector of Land Revenue.

Treasury—Assistant Treasurer and Collector of Stamps.

Public Works and Survey Department—Deputy Colonial Engineer and Surveyor-General.

Marine Department—Harbour Master.

Post-Office—Postmaster.

Registration Department—Deputy Registrar.

Supreme Court—Puisne Judge, Registrar.

Solicitor-General's Department—Solicitor-General.

Protector of Immigrants' Department—Protector of Immigrants.

Police Court and Courts of Requests—Magistrates and Commissioners.

Sheriff's Department—Sheriff.

Ecclesiastical Department—Colonial Chaplain.

Education Department—Superintendent of Education.

Medical Department—Senior Medical Officer.

Police—Superintendent.

Gaols—Superintendent.

Lieut.-Governor.

Since the transfer of the seat of Government of the Straits Settlements to Singapore, Penang has been presided over by a Lieutenant-Governor; but it is intented, on a vacancy occurring, to replace this officer by a Resident Councillor, as has already been done in the case of Malacca.

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Chinese protectorate.

This department was instituted with the object of regulating the importation of Chinese coolies, of supervising the proceedings of their secret societies, &c. (*see* page 57).

Administration of justice.

The judicial system in force in the Straits Settlements has been described in treating of Singapore (*see* pages 57, 58).

Penang and Province Wellesley have each two police magistrates. The work in both places is heavy. In the town of Penang the population is large and troublesome, and crime is abundant; in the Province there are District Courts at long distances from each other and from the magistrate's residence at Butterworth, so that much travelling is necessary.

Ecclesiastical.

The ecclesiastical establishment consists of a Colonial Chaplain (Church of England). There are also clergymen of other denominations (Protestant, Roman Catholic, &c.), supported by various religious societies, by private contributions, &c.

Education.

According to the School Returns for 1881, there were :—

In Penang 20 schools, attended by 1467 male and 314 female scholars, and in Province Wellesley 15 schools, attended by 398 male and 2 female scholars.

The schools are English, Malay, Chinese, or Tamil. Some of them are entirely, and most of the others partially, supported by Government.

The grant for this purpose in 1880 amounted to $8,882.

Hospitals.

The following hospitals are established in Penang and Province Wellesley :—

In Penang—A general hospital for Europeans and natives, a pauper hospital, and a lock hospital.

In Province Wellesley—Four native hospitals in different parts of the Province.

The largest of these institutions is the pauper hospitals, which is supported partly by Government, partly by bequest, and voluntary contributions, and is managed by a local committee comprising some of the wealthiest Chinese headmen in the Settlement. The other hospitals are supported entirely by Government. Fees are charged in them to all patients who can afford to pay, ranging from $2 per diem for European officers to 6 cents per diem for coolies. The general hospital is not adequate to the wants of the Colony, and a new building is being erected at an estimated cost of $88,000. The lock hospital is engaging the attention of Government, with a view to its improvement.

Prisons.

The gaols at Penang are in a satisfactory state.

Municipal commission.

The municipal affairs of Penang are administered by a body of Commissioners, who are appointed under the Indian Act, No. 14, of 1856, and whose duties, &c., are regulated by that enactment. They are subject, in regard to appointments, the audit of accounts, and the imposition of fees, &c., to the supervision of the Local Government.

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Tenure of land.

Land in Penang and Province Wellesley is held on similar terms to those prevailing in Singapore, viz., leased for different periods, under squatter permit, and in fee simple. The alienation in perpetuity of Crown Land has here, as in Singapore, stood in the way of a large permanent revenue, though not to so great an extent. Leases in the country in Province Wellesley pay an annual rent of 30 cents, and in the Island of Penang, 40 cents per acre. Land is disposed of after application at an upset price, which is about $3 per acre in Province Wellesley, and $6 per acre in Prince of Wales' Island.

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Section M.—FINANCE.

See Singapore, Sec. M, pages 61–67.

Section N.—MONEYS, WEIGHTS AND MEASURES.

See Singapore, Sec. N, pages 68, 69.

Section O.—ARMY.

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Section P.—NAVY.

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Section Q.—BOOKS OF REFERENCE, &c.

See under Singapore, pages 72–74.

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MALACCA.

Section A.—GEOGRAPHY.

POSITION. — BOUNDARIES. — EXTENT. — TOPOGRAPHY. — RIVERS.— GEOLOGY.—SUBDIVISIONS.

Position. On the south-western side of the isthmus, and about 100 miles from Singapore, is the territory of Malacca, lying between the petty Malay States of Sungei Ujong to the north-west, Rambau and Johol to the north-east, and Muar to the south-east. On the Boundaries. south-west it is bounded by the Straits of Malacca. The rivers Linggi and Kessang form its north-western and south-eastern boundaries respectively: the north-eastern frontier is defined by substantial boundary pillars.

The town of Malacca, which lies nearly in the centre of the coast line, is situated in lat. 2° 10′ N., and long. 102° 14′ E.

Extent. Malacca is the largest of the three Settlements, measuring about 42 miles along the coast, and extending inland from 10 to 28 miles. It contains an area of 422,760 acres. Adjoining it are some islands, also the property of the Crown, of an extent of 520 acres, making a total acreage of 422,760 acres. Of these islands the most important is a group called the Water Islands, situated from 6 to 10 miles to the south-east of the town. They are small, high, round islands, covered with trees, and on the largest of them abundance of good water may be obtained from several springs.

Topography. The coast is partly rocky, but for the most part low and swampy. The interior is undulating, with low hills and valleys, the former gradually increasing in elevation as they recede from the coast. The highest hill is Bukit Linggî, 800 feet. The country is gradually becoming denuded of forest, and is generally open. Springs are plentiful, and water is abundant.

Rivers. The chief rivers are the Linggi (or Lingie), the Malacca, and the Kessang. Their mouths are more or less obstructed by bars and sandbanks. Their banks are generally low, in many places swampy, and covered with forest.

The Linggi divides at Sempang, about six miles from its mouth, into two branches. The right or northern branch flows through Sungei Ujong, while the left branch forms the boundary between

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Malacca and Rambau, up to Sungei Landoo, above which it is a mere streamlet coming down from the Rambau Hills.

The Malacca river, on which the town is situated, drains a large extent of land, and frequently overflows its banks.

The navigability of rivers is described under Section C, page 109.

Geology. The principal hills are of granitic formation, but the rock which most abounds in Malacca is black laterite, containing a large percentage of iron. The valleys are of rich alluvial soil, and grow plentiful rice crops. Thermal sulphureous springs are met with at Ayer Panas, about 15 miles east of Malacca, at Sabang, and at Londi in Naning, but no volcanic products occur.

Sub-divisions. The country is divided into 64 districts, each presided over by a native official, called a penghulu.

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Section B.—HARBOURS, &c.

The Port of Malacca is but an open roadstead lying opposite to the town. It is nevertheless safe at all seasons of the year, not being within the latitude of hurricanes nor within the active influence of either monsoon. Violent tempests are never felt, and the sudden hard squalls, which during the S.W. monsoon frequently blow into the roads at night time from the Sumatra side (hence called "Sumatras") seldom last above an hour or two.

The anchorage for large vessels is at from 1½ to 2 miles from the shore, in rather less than 10 fathoms of water, with a bottom of soft mud. Vessels of light burden may be moored much closer to shore, under the lee of Fisher Island, near the Fort, where they are sheltered from the S.W. monsoon.

The rise of tide at the springs is from 8 to 10 feet, and it then runs about 2 miles an hour.

The great defect of the Port is the distance from the shore at which vessels are compelled to lie. At low water the mudbanks are bare for nearly a mile out, leaving open only a narrow channel into the town, blocked by a bar at the mouth of the small river, over which even boats have some difficulty in passing, except from a quarter flood to three quarters ebb tide.

A lighthouse has been erected on St. Paul's Hill, overhanging the town, to guide ships passing through the straits, or coming into the roadstead. The light is visible for a distance of 13 miles.

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Section C.—COMMUNICATIONS.

ROADS. — CAMPING GROUNDS. — RIVERS. — TELEGRAPHS. — MAIL SERVICES.—TRANSPORT ANIMALS AND VEHICLES.

ROADS.

The surface of the Province being level or gently undulating, there is no difficulty in laying out a good road line in almost any direction. Of late years much has been done to open up the country, and there are now 256 miles of road, of which 170 are metalled. There are five principal thoroughfares, radiating from the town to various parts of the frontier; they are kept in good order.

Main roads.

Road to Kassang.

Perhaps the most important road is that leading to the tin mines of Kassang, about 18 miles inland. As soon as the outskirts of the town are passed, long prairie-like plains of waving "paddy" stretch away on either side, till broken by a belt of jungle, or a range of hills, while dotted here and there are little dark green clumps of cocoa-nut trees, shading the homesteads of the Malay husbandmen. For about four miles from the town these paddy fields stretch uninterruptedly along. At this distance belts of jungle and half-cleared land appear, beyond which very little paddy is grown. Here, however, commence the tapioca plantations, which continue to about 10 miles from the town, when they too cease, and the road runs then through jungle for some five miles to the hot springs or Ayer Panas, where stand a small native hamlet and a Government bungalow. Up to this point the road is identical with that which existed two or three hundred years ago, and it still preserves its smooth and level surface. The road from Ayer Panas bungalow to Kassang runs through forest, and is not quite so good.

The best roads are usually macadamized with a ferruginous clay found in many parts of the territory, which is soft when first dug out but becomes exceedingly hard upon exposure to the sun.

Country roads.

The roads or tracts in the interior of the country, are often very bad, leading along paths knee-deep in mud, through dense forests, in which the traveller is much annoyed by the leeches, which fasten on him from the grass and bushes as he goes along.

Camping grounds.

There are good encamping grounds in many parts of Malacca. On the sea-beaches near Tanjong Kling is a very good place where troops encamped in the war of 1829.

Springs are plentiful and water is abundant; a small supply

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may almost everywhere be collected from the curious pitcher-plants which abound throughout the country.

Railways.

There are no railways.

Rivers.

The Linggi River is an important channel of communication for bringing down tin from the mines in the interior. It is navigable for vessels of 8 feet draught as far as Sempang, the point of bifurcation (*see* Sec. A, page 105). The right branch can be ascended by large native boats for a distance of 4 or 5 miles above Sempang, and by small boats for about 30 miles higher. The left branch is only navigable for boats a distance of 5 miles.

The Malacca River, which runs through the town, is a canal-like stream, which at high tide enables tong-kangs and small cargo-boats to come up and discharge opposite the numerous "godowns" which line its banks. Small boats can ascend it for about 5 miles. At low water the entrance to the river is nearly dry.

The Kessang can be ascended by native boats as far as Ayer Bankong, some 25 miles from the sea.

The other streams are small, and navigable even for boats only a short distance from their mouths.

Telegraphs.

Malacca is in telegraphic communication with Singapore and Penang. There are no local lines.

Mail Services.

The mail steamers do not touch here, but there is a local service once a week.

The boats of the B.I.S.N. Company touch once a fortnight.

Transport Animals and Vehicles.

For Return of Transport Animals and Vehicles in the Straits Settlements, see pages 24, 25.

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Section D.—TOWNS.

Position.

The capital of the Colony, and indeed its only town, is Malacca, situated on the western coast of the Peninsula, at the mouth of the river of the same name. It lies about 100 miles N.W. of Singapore, 220 miles S.S.E. of Penang, and is distant some 45 miles from the nearest point of the coast of Sumatra on the opposite side of the Strait.

The town has an area of 270 acres; it is divided by the river into two parts, connected by a handsome iron bridge. On the right bank is the native town, or Malacca proper, and on the left bank the European or official quarter.

Malacca proper.

The former, which is by far the larger part of the city, is built upon flat ground, not much more than 10 or 15 feet above the sea level, and sloping gradually to the beach. The houses are well built, with tiled roofs, closely packed together towards the river bank, and running out towards the beach on posts or piles considerably beyond high water mark. The dwellings thus built out into the sea stand in most cases over mudbanks which, when the tide is out, emit a very disagreeable odour; they are said, however, to be perfectly healthy. The streets are well macadamised, but narrow: the three principal ones run parallel to the coast.

This division of the town is, properly speaking, the business quarter, and contains the bazaars. It is densely peopled, and the streets are usually crowded, but there is little appearance of commercial activity. The principal buildings on the right bank of the river are the Anglo-Chinese College, the Mission Chapel, the principal Chinese temple and two large mosques.

European quarter.

The European part of the town, on the left bank of the river is very picturesque, the houses of the English officials and merchants being tastefully built and often surrounded by groves of palms and fruit trees.

Near the river rises the verdant hill of St. Paul, surmounted by the lighthouse and flagstaff, and by the ruins of the ancient church of Our Lady *del Monte*, erected by the Portuguese in the early part of the 16th century. Around its base lie the barracks, lines, and most of the houses of the military; the stadt-house, court-house, gaol, church, civil and military hospitals, the site of the old inquisition, convent, school, police office, post office, &c.

The Stadt-house is a solid and substantial edifice of Dutch architecture, and is perhaps the finest old building to be met with in the Straits: it now forms the Government House. Close to it

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is the church at present in use, a Dutch building some 150 years old, of ample proportions and in almost perfect preservation.

On the seaward side of St. Paul's Hill stood formerly one of the strongest forts which had probably ever been constructed in the Straits: it was destroyed by the British in 1807 in anticipation of the abandonment of the place, and all that now remains is the eastern gateway.

A little to the south rises the hill of St. John, and in the rear that of St. Francis. On these eminences are still the remains of batteries erected by the Portuguese and Dutch, commanding the eastern and southern entrances to the town. Smaller knolls intervene, covered with the extensive cemeteries of the Chinese.

Water supply.

The water supply of the town is limited.

Inhabitants.

The population of the town, according to the census of 1881, was 30,222, comprising 29 Europeans, 10,000 Chinese, 14,000 Malays, and 1,700 natives of India (*see* Table, page 118).

Municipal institutions.

The Local Board of Malacca has the same constitution and duties as that of Singapore (*see* page 29).

Malacca was formerly, as the remains of its ancient buildings testify, a place of considerable importance, and carried on an extensive trade; but, owing to the superior advantages of Penang and Singapore, its commerce has declined and is now very limited. It seems very improbable that it will ever again attain its former prosperity.

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Section E.—FORTS, ARSENALS, STORES, BARRACKS, &c.

[*This Section, being very confidential, is printed separately.*]

Section F.—DOCKYARDS AND NAVAL ESTABLISHMENTS.

Nil.

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Section G.—CLIMATE.

CLIMATE.—TEMPERATURE AND RAINFALL.—EFFECT OF CLIMATE ON HEALTH.—EPIDEMICS.

Climate, temperature, rainfall, &c.

The climate of Malacca is considered to be preferable to that of either Singapore or Penang.

The temperature is remarkably uniform, the thermometer usually ranging from 72° to 85°, seldom exceeding the latter, or falling much below the former. The mean annual temperature is about 77·6°, or about 2·4° below that of Singapore. Scorching land winds are not encountered here, but there are regular land and sea breezes. The mornings and evenings are cool, and hot nights rarely occur.

Malacca is but slightly affected by the monsoons that prevail in the Bay of Bengal. Rain falls throughout the year at intervals of a few days, keeping the face of the country in a state of perpetual verdure. The rainy season, if such it can be called, continues from September to December and January. From this month to March is the coldest and driest time of the year.

Violent squalls, termed Sumatras, prevail during the S.W. monsoon, which commences in May and terminates in October. They rise suddenly, attended with thunder and lightning, and with floods of rain, but seldom last longer than three hours, often not one.

The fluctuation of the barometer is very trifling, only from 29·83 in. to 30·3 in.

Effect of climate on health.

Notwithstanding constant heat and much moisture, the town at least is remarkable for its salubrity, and, with the exception of the early period of its occupation by the Portuguese, has always enjoyed this reputation. It was found that, during a period of seven years (1841 to 1847), the deaths among the troops stationed here amounted to less than 2 per cent. Instances of longevity are numerous, not only in the native population but among the Dutch and Portuguese inhabitants.

The country inland is not so healthy, and in some places fever and rheumatism are very prevalent.

Epidemics.

In 1819 there was an outbreak of cholera. The natives were first attacked, then the Portuguese and Chinese, and finally the native and European troops. During its height the casualties varied from 5 to 15 daily. It was remarked that its ravages were greatest among the population of marshy and confined situations, and among persons of feeble constitution.

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Section H.—AGRICULTURE, PRODUCTIONS, TRADE, &c.

AGRICULTURE AND VEGETABLE PRODUCTIONS.—DOMESTIC ANIMALS.—WILD ANIMALS.—BIRDS, REPTILES, &c.—FISH.—SUPPLIES.—MINERALS.—MANUFACTURES.—TRADE.—SHIPPING.

Agriculture and vegetable productions.

The soil of Malacca is remarkably fertile, but till lately agriculture has been much neglected. A few years ago the rice raised in the Colony was scarcely sufficient for four months' consumption, the additional supply being brought from Acheen, Java, and Bengal. A principal cause of this was the former policy of the Dutch, who, while Malacca belonged to them, prohibited the raising of any kind of grain, with the view of rendering the inhabitants wholly dependent for their supplies on Java. The British Government, however, has given every encouragement to agriculture, which is on the increase, the forests being rapidly cleared away; but still (as will be seen, pages 42, 116 & 178) a considerable quantity of rice has to be imported.

According to the returns for 1881, out of a total acreage of 421,760, the extent of land under cultivation was 139,047 acres, of which 37,914 were devoted to padi, 29,097 to fruit trees, cocoa-nuts and gardens, and 72,036 to tapioca. No details are given as to the amount of produce. Cocoa-nuts form a considerable portion of the food of the lower-classes.

Among the other vegetable productions are jaggery, sago, pepper, rattans, a few nutmegs, cloves, gambier, dammar, gum-lac, &c. Coffee, sugar-cane, cotton, indigo and chocolate have also been tried and found to answer well. A great variety of fine fruits are cultivated, and also grow spontaneously, including the mangosteen, which is said to attain a higher perfection here than probably anywhere else.

The forests abound with fine durable timber, well adapted for ship and house building.

Domestic animals.

The Colonial Blue Book for 1881 gives the number of stock as:—

Horses	300
Horned Cattle	3,000
Sheep	150
Goats	2,500

Buffaloes are the beasts of burden, and their flesh is not un-

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palatable. During the Perak war our troops had a ration of buffalo meat four times a week. There is good grass for cattle. Poultry are abundant and, as well as cattle, are exported to Singapore in considerable numbers.

For information as to transport animals, see Table, page 24.

Wild animals. The zoology of Malacca is that of the Peninsula generally, and includes nine species of monkeys, the tiger, leopard, and several smaller feline animals, the elephant, rhinoceros, tapir, several species of deer, two species of wild ox, &c.

Birds, reptiles, &c. Birds are numerous, including the argus pheasant, woodpeckers, kingfishers, cuckoos, doves, &c.

The rivers are infested by crocodiles.

In the marshy grounds of the interior, leeches abound, and are very troublesome to travellers, fastening upon them from the bushes which border the narrow jungle paths.

Fish. The coast abounds with fish in great variety, and prawns, both of excellent quality.

There are 1,012 registered fishing boats, and 1440 natives are classed as fishermen.

Supplies. Malacca is convenient for vessels requiring supplies. Fish, yams, grain, sago, and a variety of fruits may be obtained at moderate prices; also poultry, hogs and buffaloes. Forage and fuel are more readily obtainable than at Singapore or Penang. For average price of provisions, see Table, pages 43, 44.

Minerals. The great bulk of the tin exported from Malacca is derived from Linggi, Lukut, Selangor, Perak, and other places in the interior, but part is the produce of the Colony. In 1881 the yield of the Malacca tin mines was 662 cwt., valued at $14,207. The tin is obtained in the form of black grains, from beds of quartzose sand, and is melted into ingots in rude clay furnaces.

Manufactures. The manufactures of Malacca are very limited, the principal being the preparation of tapioca and gambier. A small amount of iron work is manufactured by Chinese smiths.

For average rate of wages, see Table, page 44.

Trade. When Malacca was taken possession of by the Portuguese in 1511, it was one of the grand entrepôts for the commerce of the East, but as the Portuguese pushed their operations further eastward in the Archipelago and neighbouring countries, the trade of Malacca gradually declined and it ceased to be of consequence as a collecting centre, except for the trade of the Malayan Peninsula and the Island of Sumatra. This trade it retained under Dutch rule till the establishment of Penang in 1786, when, in the course of a few years it almost ceased, and Malacca became what it has ever since been, a place of comparatively small commercial importance, but possessing great undeveloped agricultural resources.

Since 1830, the trade of Malacca (as appears from the subjoined statement) has considerably revived, but there is no prospect that its former state of prosperity will ever again be reached.

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In 1833, the Imports amounted to	£104,000,	and	the	Exports	to	£58,000.
„ 1843	„	„	95,000	„	„	62,000.
„ 1853	„	„	299,000	„	„	218,000.
„ 1863	„	„	453,000	„	„	360,000.
„ 1872	„	„	549,000	„	„	603,000.
„ 1879	„	„	509,000	„	„	519,000.
„ 1880	„	„	622,000	„	„	681,000.
„ 1881	„	„	687,000	„	„	734,000.

The trade of Malacca is principally with Singapore and with the Malay States in the interior. To the former it exports tin, tapioca, cattle, poultry, blachang, copra, &c., &c., in return for specie, rice, opium, manufactured goods, salt fish, tobacco, &c. From the latter the principal import is tin, and a little blachang and gutta, in exchange for specie, opium, and rice.

Like Singapore, Malacca is a free port, the only tax to which shipping is liable consists of a very moderate one of $1\frac{1}{2}d.$ per ton register, in support of the lighthouses.

Shipping.

Shipping.

Statement, showing the number of Vessels entered at the Port of Malacca for the Years 1879, 1880, *and* 1881.

Years.	Steamers, Ships, Barques, Brigs, and Schooners.						Native Craft.	
	British.		Foreign.		Total.		Number.	Tonnage.
	Number.	Tonnage.	Number.	Tonnage.	Number.	Tonnage.		
1879	..	..	..	..	645	168,699	666	13,807
1880	649	152,382	8	9,850	657	162,232	697	15,162
1881	687	178,617	5	5,150	692	183,767	584	14,292

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Section I.—INHABITANTS.

The population of Malacca was returned at 29,000 in 1834, at 49,000 in 1844, at 63,000 in 1854, at 71,000 in 1864, at 77,000 in 1871, and in 1881 at 93,579, comprising 67,000 Malays, 19,000 Chinese, 1,900 natives of India, and 40 Europeans (*see* Table, page 118).

The Malays here, having been so long under European rule, are most orderly subjects, and live quiet, peaceable lives, cultivating the few acres handed down to them, and getting just enough to live upon. They are for the most part padi planters. During the disturbances in Sungei Ujong, a state of alarm approaching to panic prevailed in Malacca, the residents fearing that the Malays of Naning, in concert with their countrymen in the neighbouring state of Rambau, would descend and attack the town. There were, however, not the slighest grounds for these apprehensions. Regarding the Malays of Malacca, Mr. J. R. Logan, a keen observer of native character, writes—"A European travels with a sense of such absolute security amongst agricultural Malays, and is treated with so much deference and friendliness, when his own manner is courteous and friendly, that it is hard to believe that anything short of a supercilious behaviour and a despotic disregard of rights and prejudices could provoke them into an armed resistance of a European Government. The truth is that the Malays are essentially a peaceful and not a warlike people."

The Chinese inhabitants are mainly employed in the tin-mines, and on the sago and tapioca plantations. A large proportion of them have been born in the place, and boast of being British subjects.

About the old town there are a considerable number of descendants of the old Dutch and Portuguese settlers.

The population of Malacca is very poor compared, for instance, with that of Province Wellesley. The system of collecting land revenue by tenths of the produce, which was handed down by the Dutch, is a very defective and troublesome one besides giving rise to much peculation. Attempts are now being made to supersede it by encouraging the people to take out leases on easy terms.

The form of administration in force (each district being presided over by a Pĕngûlu or headman appointed by Government) is well suited to the people, and they have no real grievance. The small police force, which is composed almost entirely of Malays, is quite sufficient to maintain order. As telegraphic communication is established with Singapore, which

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is less than twelve hours' steaming from Malacca, the present garrison of European troops could be dispensed with. They might be replaced by a small body of mounted police.

No newspapers are published in this Settlement.

DISTRIBUTION OF THE POPULATION OF MALACCA, 3RD APRIL, 1881.

Nationalities.	Town Division.	Country Division.	Floating Population.	Total.
Aborigines of the Peninsula ..	6	302	..	308
Achinese	1	4	..	5
Africans	7	..	3	10
Anamese	5	..	..	5
Arabs	212	15	..	227
Bengalis, and other natives of India, not particularised.	56	38	12	106
Boyanese	194	15	3	212
Bugis..	42	15	..	57
Chinese	10,737	8,916	88	19,741
Dyaks	..	7	..	7
Eurasians	2,186	24	3	2,213
Europeans	29	3	8	40
Javanese	179	212	8	399
Jawi-Pekans*	815	52	..	867
Malays	14,200	53,258	55	67,513
Manilamen	..	..	22	22
Siamese	7	3	..	10
Sinhalese	10	42	..	52
Tamils	1,536	241	8	1,785
	30,222	63,147	210	93,579

* Native half-castes.

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Section K.—HISTORY.

The founders of Malacca appear to have been a tribe of Malays who had for many years held Singapore, but who in the year 1252 had been driven from that island.

In the following year, 1253, Sri Iskander Shah, the last King of Singapore, founded the new city and named it Malacca, after a tree of that name, under which he had rested whilst hunting. 1253.

The new Colony rapidly acquired importance, and Malacca very shortly became the third greatest city in the East, Majapahit in Java being the first and Pasi in Sumatra the second.

In 1276 Sultan Muhamed Shah, the first Mahometan King of the Malays, ascended the throne of Malacca. He spread the new religion far and wide, and extended the limits of his kingdom to include Lingga, Bintang, Johor, Patani, Kedah, Perak, and even some states in Sumatra. 1276.

In 1340 and following years, Malacca was twice unsuccessfully attacked by the King of Siam. 1340.

The longest and most important reign was that of Sultan Mansar Shah, 1374 to 1447, during which Malacca conquered Pasi, and became the first city in the East. 1374.

His successor, Sultan Mahmud Shah, was the last King of Malacca, which was captured by the Portuguese under Albuquerque in 1511. 1477. 1511.

During the possession of Malacca by the Portuguese, which lasted for 130 years, it would seem to have maintained its importance, although with the exception of courage and daring its possessors exhibited none of the qualities fit to rule an Asiatic people.

From their first appearance in the Indian seas they declared a crusade against the Mahomedan religion, to which their subjects, and most of the inhabitants of the neighbouring countries belonged, while they carried on a piratical war against all who opposed them in the prosecution of their main object, viz., the establishment of a commercial monopoly in the Eastern seas.

This policy necessarily raised against them a host of enemies. The expelled Malays made war upon them during the whole period of their occupation of Malacca, while their territory was invaded on several occasions by the sovereigns of Java and of Acheen in Sumatra. In addition to these attacks by the natives of the different countries of the Archipelago, they had also to withstand the repeated assaults of a far more powerful enemy, the Dutch, to whom they had eventually to succumb.

The Portuguese resisted all these enemies with extraordinary courage and fortitude. The Dutch besieged Malacca in 1606, and

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again in 1608, but were defeated on both occasions, and it was not
1642. until 1642, and after a siege of nine months' duration, that they succeeded in capturing it. The attacking force at this time amounted to 1,500 men, with Malay auxiliaries to the same number, while the garrison was reduced to 200 Europeans and 400 natives.

Under the rule of the Dutch the prosperity of Malacca speedily began to decline, the cruel and narrow-minded policy which they pursued driving the population away in large numbers to the
1795. neighbouring States. They retained its possession till 1795, when, during the war of the French revolution, it came into our hands by a friendly military occupation.

1805-8. During the period of the first British occupation, which lasted till 1818, the Fort of Malacca, which had been built in 1743 (or as some say, had been begun by Albuquerque in 1515), and which enjoyed a wide celebrity for strength, was destroyed by order of the Home Government, at the enormous expense of 260,000 rupees. The work of demolition commenced in 1805, and was concluded in 1808. It would probably never have been undertaken, had it been foreseen that the English would remain eventual masters of the place.

1810. In 1810 the forces under Lord Minto, destined for the capture of Java, rendezvoused here and at Penang.

1818. In 1818 Malacca was restored to the Dutch, but was finally
1825. ceded to Great Britain in 1825, in exchange for the East India Company's Settlement at Bencoolen, on the west coast of Sumatra.

1826. In the following year it was incorporated with Singapore and Penang, which were now formed into the Colony of the Straits Settlements.

In 1831 the tranquility of the Settlement was interrupted by the Naning War, the causes which led to which were briefly as follows:—

Naning is an inland territory lying to the north of Malacca, of which it now forms part: in 1831, however, its ownership was not so clearly defined.

It appears to have fallen into the power of the Portuguese at the same time as Malacca, and when they gave place to the Dutch, it was looked upon as a dependency of that Settlement, being governed by a pengulu and assistants, appointed by the Dutch Governor of Malacca. The Dutch also reserved to themselves the power of inflicting capital punishment in Naning, and levied a small revenue, chiefly a percentage on the yearly rice crop.

The Dutch rule was not altogether unopposed by the Malays of Naning (chiefly immigrants from Menang Kabau, in Sumatra); and successive governors of Malacca found it necessary, on more than one occasion, to make demonstrations in support of their claims to the supreme power in that district.

In 1825 the British took final possession of Malacca and Naning, holding the latter place on the same terms as had hitherto

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been in force between its inhabitants and the Dutch; and in 1827, the pengulu, Abdul Syed, with his assistants, the "ampat suku," or four subordinate chiefs, proceeded to Malacca and paid their respects to the English Resident.

In 1828 an unsuccessful attempt was made to pension these chiefs, and to place the Naning lands on the same footing as those of Malacca. In 1829 an officer was sent to inform the pengulu that Naning was an integral part of Malacca, and that it was intended by Government to subject it also to the general regulations affecting the rest of the territory. The officer was further instructed to take a census of the people, and to offer compensation to the pengulu and sukus. The census was allowed to be taken, but the rest of the proposals were resisted.

The pengulu was then summoned to Malacca, but refused to attend, and still further compromised himself by the forcible seizure of some property within the Malacca boundary, which he refused to give up. It was therefore determined that an expedition should be sent to chastise him.

The force destined for this purpose consisted of 150 rank and file of the 29th Madras Native Infantry, two 6-pdrs., with a small detail of native artillery, under the command of Captain Wyllie, Madras Native Infantry, and was accompanied by a civil commissioner.

On the 6th of August, 1831, the expedition started from Malacca, and reached Sungei Pattye, 13 miles from Malacca, whither it was intended that the provisions for the troops should be sent, by way of the Malacca river. It turned out, however, that there was not sufficient depth of water to permit of this being done. 1831.

On the following morning, although the supplies had not as yet reached Sungei Pattye, Captain Wyllie determined on proceeding, fearful that, were the detachment to halt on the confines, an erroneous impression might be conveyed to the Naningites, who would, in all probability, attribute a delay to vacillation and apprehension. As, besides, the best information up to this period tended to strengthen the belief that the affair could, even in the event of hostilities, be decided by a *coup-de-main*, for which purpose the troops could carry sufficient provisions in their haversacks, the advance was fully justified.

After encountering some resistance near Kalama, the frontier of Naning, and at Bukit Sabusah, a little further on, the force arrived, at 10.30 a.m. on the 9th, at Mulike, a village 17 miles from Malacca and 5 from Tabu, the residence of Abdul Syed, where they encamped.

The position of the force had now become critical. The provisions were totally expended, whilst the enemy were swarming around in large numbers, and menacing the communications with Malacca. A retreat was accordingly resolved upon, and next day the detachment fell back to Sungei Pattye, where, with the aid

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of reinforcements from Malacca, it maintained its position until the 24th of August, when orders for its return arrived. After destroying the heavy baggage, the retreat was commenced the same evening, and Malacca was reached, after some little fighting, early the next morning. The two guns had to be abandoned on the way, it being found impracticable to get them over the felled trees which obstructed the line of march.

The Malacca territory, up to the very outskirts of the town, was thus left at the mercy of the Malays, until the arrival of reinforcements from Madras; a treaty of friendship and alliance being, in the meantime, concluded with the chiefs of the neighbouring state of Rambau, who had assisted the Pengulu in his rebellion.

1832. In January, 1832, a force of Malacca troops was organized at Malacca, under Lieutenant-Colonel Herbert, to effect what the first expedition had failed to accomplish. It consisted of the 5th Madras Native Infantry, a company of rifles, two companies of sappers and miners, and a detachment of European and native artillery.

On the 2nd of March Lieutenant-Colonel Herbert joined the force at Rumbujah, about 10 miles from Malacca.

On the 25th the troops encamped at Sungei-Pattye, nearly three miles in advance, after a slight resistance met with when felling the dense forest which lies between the latter place and Rumbujah.

On the 5th April they arrived at Alor Gajeh, 15 miles from Malacca, with the loss of a European officer, who fell whilst carrying a stockade at Ayer Mangis, not far from Kalama.

Near Alor Gajeh, the resistance was more stubborn, and after a further loss in officers and men, the troops were compelled to act on the defensive, the Malays making frequent attacks upon the camp.

About the middle of May, reinforcements, principally of the 46th N. I. Regiment, arrived from Penang. On the 21st offensive operations were resumed; and on the 15th of the following month Tabu fell after a slight resistance, the Pengulu making his escape.

Thus terminated the second Naning expedition. The general conduct of the campaign was cautious and slow. The country in which it took place, between Rumbujah, the base of operations, and Tabu, is an undulating tract about 12 miles in length; the hollows consisting of swampy flats and wet rice grounds, and the intervening swells generally covered with dense jungle. From Rumbujah, itself situated in a lofty forest, the sappers and miners, protected by a covering party from the infantry, and occasionally by artillery, commenced clearing the forest to the extent of from 70 to 100 yards on each side of the road or pathway to Tabu. The skirmishes of the covering parties with the Malays, who as they retreated kept up a harassing, though by no means effective fire

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from the cover of the jungle, the attacks on such stockades as were here and there erected in favourable positions commanding the route to Tabu, and an occasional detour to attack others on the flanks, formed the line of operation throughout. The advance of the force was consequently regulated by the necessarily slow progress of the clearing of the forest. The troops, therefore, did not reach Tabu, a distance of only 12 miles from Rumbujah, in less than ten weeks, exclusive of the check at Alor Gajeh.*

The defeat of the first expedition, and the consequent necessity and expense (estimated at 10 lacs of rupees) of the second, are attributed to the want of information displayed by the Civil Commissioner regarding the country and the resources of the Naningites, and to the fact that there was then in the Straits no military officer exercising a general command over all the troops serving therein. Had such an authority existed, the first expedition, so nearly successful, could have been at once supported by troops drawn from the idle detachments at Penang or Singapore, and the end accomplished with ease at but small cost.

After the fall of Tabu, a Settlement officer was sent to conduct the administration of Naning, and the country was for some time occupied by Madras troops. In 1834 Abdul Syed, the ex-Pengulu, surrendered himself to Government, and Naning became gradually merged in Malacca; no further resistance to the British authority having since been attempted.

In December, 1875, a riot broke out amongst the Chinese in the town of Malacca, and at one time spread throughout nearly the whole Settlement. Great alarm was occasioned among the European residents, it being at first apprehended that the outbreak had some connection with the rising of Malays which had occurred in some of the adjacent States (*see* pages 149 and 167). It subsequently appeared, however, that this was not the case, but that the disturbance originated simply in a fracas between members of rival Chinese societies. A detachment of troops was sent to reinforce the garrison, and on their appearance tranquility was speedily restored, the principal Chinese merchants and the Malay inhabitants rendering every assistance to the Government in suppressing the outbreak. 1875.

Ever since the occupation of Malacca by the Dutch, the importance and wealth of this once great seaport have steadily diminished, and later years have shown but little improvement. The establishment of the Colony of Penang dealt a severe blow to its prosperity, while that of Singapore, a much nearer and more important rival, has resulted almost in the effacement of the older Settlement as a place of political or mercantile importance.

* A detailed account of these operations will be found in "The Malayan Peninsula," by Captain Begbie, Madras Artillery (*see* Sec. Q, page 72).

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Section L.—ADMINISTRATION.

LIST OF THE PRINCIPAL GOVERNMENT OFFICIALS.—RESIDENT COUNCILLOR. — ADMINISTRATION OF JUSTICE. — ADMINISTRATIVE SUB-DIVISIONS. — ECCLESIASTICAL DETAILS. — EDUCATION. — HOSPITALS. — POLICE. — PRISONS. — MUNICIPAL COUNCIL. — TENURE OF LAND.

The form of Government of the Straits Settlements has been described in a former Section (*see* pages 54–57).

List of the principal Government officials.

The principal Government Officials in Malacca are as under. They are all subordinate to the heads of their respective departments in Singapore :—

Resident Councillor.

Treasury—Assistant Treasurer.

Public Works and Survey Department — Superintendent of Works and Surveys.

Supreme Court—Registrar.

Court of Requests and Police Court — Commissioner and Magistrate.

Sheriff's Department—Sheriff.

Ecclesiastical—Colonial Chaplain.

Medical—Colonial Surgeon.

Police—Superintendent.

Gaols—Superintendent.

Resident Councillor.

In 1879 a Resident Councillor was appointed as head of the Administration of Malacca. Previous to that time the Settlement was presided over by a Lieutenant-Governor.

Administration of justice.

The judicial system in force in the Straits Settlements has been described in treating of Singapore (*see* page 57).

The Supreme Court at Malacca is presided over by one of the judges resident at Singapore. There is only one police magistrate in the Settlement, and he is able to discharge his duties without difficulty, there being comparatively little crime.

Administrative subdivisions.

Malacca is divided into 64 districts, each presided over by a native official in the pay of Government, called a Pengulu.

Ecclesiastical.

A Colonial Chaplain (Church of England) is supported by Government. There are several Roman Catholic clergymen, who are maintained by the Portuguese Government.

Education.

According to the School Returns for 1881, there were 6 English and 17 Malay schools, with an attendance respectively of 589 and 619 pupils. The English schools are partially, and the Malay schools entirely, supported by Government. The grant for this purpose in 1881 amounted to $10,556.

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Hospitals.

Malacca is provided with a general hospital, a pauper hospital, and a lock hospital. The largest of these institutions is the pauper hospital, which is supported partly by voluntary subscriptions and partly by Government. The other hospitals are supported entirely by Government.

Prisons.

The gaol at Malacca is a new building with cellular accommodation for 200 prisoners, and is in a satisfactory condition.

Municipal Council.

The conservancy of the town of Malacca is in the hands of a municipal Council, which defrays the cost thereof from assessments levied on property within the municipal limits, &c. (*see* page 58).

Tenure of land.

The tenure of land in Malacca is more complicated than in the other two Settlements, owing to many titles dating far back to the days when the Dutch were in possession, and to the system of tenure by prescriptive right.

In 1840 the East India Company issued a set of Land Regulations, leasing lands on certain terms for 20 years, whilst a clause provided that, if at any time any portion of a lessee's land remained uncultivated for a year's time, it reverted to the Company. As may be imagined, hardly any applications were made for leases on such conditions.

At the present time leases are issued for various terms of years, at certain upset prices, which vary according to the quality of the land and the species of cultivation contemplated.

All leases bear an annual rent; lands held by prescriptive right are subject to a payment to Government of one-tenth part of the annual produce, which in some cases has been commuted for a money payment (*see* Sec. I, page 117).

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Section M.—FINANCE.

See Singapore, Sec. M, pages 61–67.

Section N.—MONEYS, WEIGHTS AND MEASURES.

See Singapore, Sec. N, pages 68, 69.

Section O.—ARMY.

Printed separately.

Section P.—NAVY.

Printed separately.

Section Q.—BOOKS OF REFERENCE, &c.

See Singapore, Sec. Q, pages 72–75.

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THE DINDINGS.

Section A.—GEOGRAPHY.

About 70 miles south of Penang and near the mouth of the Perak River, is a group of islands known as the Dindings, which, as well as a portion of the adjacent mainland, have lately become British territory. The estimated extent is—

Dindings, Mainland	103,000 acres.
Pûlau Pangkor, or Great Dinding Island	7,560 „
Other islands	5,500 „
Total ..	116,060 acres.

The territory on the mainland, which appears to have been but little explored, extends along the coast northward from Pulau Katta for 22 miles, with a breadth inland of about 8 miles. It is traversed by the Dinding River, the mouth of which is opposite to Pulau Pangkor, and which is perhaps the only stream in Malacca Strait without a bar. It has a deep and clear entrance, 8 cables wide, and a channel 3 cables wide, with a depth of from 5 to 9 fathoms, extends 3 miles up the river, the farthest point reached by the surveying parties. On the south shore, near the mouth, is a native village.

Pulau Pangkor, or Great Dinding Island, is 5 miles long by 2 miles broad, and is separated from the mainland by a channel one or two miles wide, named Dinding Channel. The island, which is of granitic formation, is mountainous and densely wooded, the highest point being 1,318 feet above the sea. Fresh water of good quality is plentiful. On the east side is the harbour and village of Port Pangkor. See Admiralty Chart: Dinding Island and Channel, No. 792.

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Section B.—HARBOURS.

On the east side of Great Dinding Island and abreast of the Settlement of Port Pangkor there will be found secure anchorage for vessels of large draught, and sufficient space for several vessels to moor.

At the north part of the village, near the entrance of a small creek, a pier is in course of construction by the Colonial Government, which pier it is contemplated to extend to a depth of three fathoms water.

At Port Pangkor is a small Government depôt for coal, where from 60 to 100 tons are usually kept for the supply of Government and other coasting vessels. Wood for fuel is also procurable.

Small vessels may be readily aud safely grounded for examination or slight repairs between tides. Labour may be obtained at the rate of 40 cents per day per man.

Section C.—COMMUNICATIONS.

For navigability of the Dinding River, see Sec. A.

The local steamers which run between Singapore and Penang call at Port Pangkor.

Section D.—TOWNS, &c.

The village of Port Pangkor consists only of a police station and a few houses scattered on the beach. The ground in the vicinity is swampy.

Section E.

Nil.

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Section F.

Nil.

Section G.—CLIMATE.

See Perak, page 143.

Section H.—PRODUCTIONS, &c.

Vegetable productions.

The woods of Great Dinding Island consist of ebony, sandal wood, several varieties of gum, india-rubber and palm trees, bamboo, and the following native woods, namely, damarloud, nebong, kampenis, ringas, murbar—the last three are similar to mahogany: murbar is much used by the natives of Malacca Strait for the manufacture of furniture. To the above-mentioned products may be added coffee and cotton. The whole of the woods are farmed out by the Colonial Government at an annual rental. Of fruits there are the durian, pineapple, mangoe, and pomegranate.

In 1881 there were 517 acres of cultivated ground on the mainland, and 192 acres in Pulau Pangkor.

Supplies.

Poultry, eggs, and occasionally pigs, may be procured at reasonable prices. Fish are plentiful and may be caught with the seine in the bays; turtle may also be obtained in the season. Fresh water of good quality is plentiful at almost all the villages, but owing to want of proper conduits can only be obtained in small quantities.

Zoology.

Animal life abounds, but at present the density of the jungle renders the animals very difficult of approach. The island is known to contain the following, viz.: hogs, deer (moose and other kinds), monkeys, civet cat, cranes and pigeons, boa-constrictors, several kinds of cobra and other deadly snakes, alligators, guanas, lizards, scorpions, centipedes.

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Section I.—INHABITANTS.

The population of the Dindings in 1871 was 2,352, comprising 2 Europeans, 1,791 Malays, 466 Chinese, 37 Klings, and 33 Javanese.

Section K.—HISTORY.

In 1826 a treaty was concluded between the Penang Government and that of Perak, by which the latter ceded to the former—"the Pulau Dinding and the Islands of Pangkor, because the said islands afford safe abode to the pirates and robbers who plunder and molest the traders on the coast and inhabitants of the mainland, and as the King of Perak has not the power or means to drive out those pirates, &c."

It is probable that the power which Government thus obtained, to pass freely through the channels dividing the islands, was sufficient to cause the retirement of the pirates from the neighbourhood; but it does not appear that for 50 years the British Government ever occupied or took formal possession of them. It was also long doubtful whether the cession referred to the islands only, or included also part of the adjoining mainland.

This was finally settled by a treaty concluded in 1874 by Sir A. Clarke with the Rajah and Chiefs of Perak, by which a clearly defined portion of the mainland opposite to the islands was declared to be British territory.

Section L.—ADMINISTRATION.

The Dindings are placed for temporary convenience under the supervision of the Resident of Perak. The Settlement is under the jurisdiction of the Supreme Court of Singapore.

A small police force, under a European superintendent, has been established on Pulau Pangkor to preserve order.

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Section M.--FINANCE.

The revenue of Pûlau Pangkor for the year 1881 amounted to $3,505*, the expenditure being $6,417†.

Section N.—MONEY, WEIGHTS, &c.

See Singapore, Sec. N, pages 68, 69.

Section O.—ARMY.

Nil.

Section P.—NAVY.

Nil.

Section Q.—BOOKS OF REFERENCE.

Nil.

* Included in Singapore Revenue, Item 12.
† Included in Singapore Expenditure, Item 16.

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NATIVE STATES.

The Native States of the Malay Peninsula are—

On the West Coast ..	KEDAH.
	PERAK AND LARUT.
	SELANGOR.
	SUNGEI UJONG.
	MUAR.
	JOHORE.
On the East Coast ..	JOHORE.
	PAHANG.
	TRINGGANU.
	KELANTAN.
	PATANI.
In the Interior.. ..	RAMBAU.
	SRI MENANTI.
	JELLABU.
	JUMPOL.
	JOHOL.
	JELLYE.

Three of these, viz., Selangor, Perak and Sungei Ujong, are under British protection, while Kedah, Tringganu, Kelantan and Patani are in a greater or less degree tributary to Siam. The others are independent.

There is little intercourse between one State and another; and it is improbable that, with Siam in the position of suzerain over the four last named, and our influence in the other States, any serious fighting will take place between them.

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KEDAH.

GEOGRAPHY, &c.

Situation, &c. Kedah is the most northerly of the Malay States on the western side of the Peninsula of Malacca. It is bounded on the north by the Langa River, which separates it from Siam; on the east by the chain of mountains running down the middle of the Peninsula, which divides it from the Malay State of Patani; on the south by Perak; and on the west partly by the sea and partly by the British territory of Province Wellesley. Its length is about 140 miles, and its average breadth about 50 miles. Along the coast runs a chain of islands, some of which, as Langkawe and Trutao, are of considerable size. Between the islands and the mainland there lies an extensive mud bank, so that vessels of any considerable size cannot come nearer the coast than 4 miles.

Mountains and plains. Kedah is distinguished from the other States of the Peninsula by the greater amount of its level ground, which affords considerable facilities for the production of wet grain. The highest detached hill on the Kedah main is Gunong-Gerai, or Kedah Peak (lat. 5° 47′ N.), a mass of granite which rises to a height of 5,000 feet. North of this mountain is an immense plain of very gentle elevation, bounded on the east by a small chain of hills, 16 or 20 miles inland. Near the coast it is covered with a belt of mangroves, from half a-mile to a mile in breadth, and further inland the country is laid out in rice-grounds, broken every two or three miles by natural boundaries of forest. Out of this plain, at a distance of about 6 miles from the sea, and in lat. 6° 11′ N., rises abruptly to a height of 780 feet, the Elephant Hill, an isolated and remarkable object. It is of an oblong shape, about a mile in length by half a mile in breadth, and presents on every side bold and craggy precipices, with a number of small needle-like pinnacles shooting up like the spires or turrets of a cathedral. The mountains which separate Kedah from Patani attain in places a height of 6,000 to 7,000 feet.

Rivers. Kedah is traversed by at least 26 rivers, which generally flow in a westerly direction. Six of them are of considerable size, and are navigable to some extent by the common trading vessels of the Malays, but they are all obstructed at their mouths by bars. The most considerable is the Kedah River, the entrance of which is in lat. 6° 6′ N. It has a depth of 3 feet on its bar at low water: inside the bar the depths vary from 2 to 5 fathoms. It is navigable for vessels drawing 8 feet and having a pilot, as far as the town of Kedah, which is situated 7 miles from the sea. This is the chief place of the State: it is, however, but a mere

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village. There is anchorage in 5 or 6 fathoms 3 miles off the mouth of the river.

The geological formation of Kedah generally is granite, which contains iron and tin, of the last of which near 150 tons used to be exported. Gold also was found formerly. Geology.

Communications.

From Alorstur, where the Rajah resides, 12 miles up the Kedah River, to Singora, on the opposite coast, is a road, which, as far as the Siamese boundary, could, with little trouble be made good. Beyond that the road is very bad, and only fit for elephants. Roads and telegraphs.

A few years ago the Siamese Government contemplated laying a telegraph line from Singora to Penang: in fact the track was partly cleared and the posts cut, but the idea was abandoned. It is to be hoped that the Siamese Government will make this road good, and establish telegraphic communication with Penang. The line should be continued through Province Wellesley for police purposes, and in time through the Native States to Singapore. In case of any future disturbances in the Peninsula, the value of a trunk road and telegraphic communication between the different stations would be inestimable.

Productions, &c.

The vegetable products are the usual ones of the Peninsula, and the country seems to be better fitted for the production of rice than any of the other States; for, besides feeding its own population, it used, in more prosperous times, to furnish Penang with 30,000 quarters of husked rice. At present, the state of agriculture is in most places at a low ebb. Cocoa-nuts, plantains, betel-nuts, the mangosteen, durian and other fruits, grow in great perfection. Vegetable productions.

Among its animals, the elephant is very numerous, and is used as a beast of burden—even bred, and occasionally exported to the Coromandel coast. The ox, a small, compact and hardy breed, and the buffalo of great size, are abundant in the domestic state. The horse does not exist. Animals.

The whole coast is most abundant in fish, and some of them are of exquisite flavour, especially that called the "bawal putih," or white pomfret of the English, which is less rich but more delicate than the turbot. Fish.

Inhabitants.

The population may be roughly estimated at 34,000, about 25,000 of whom are Malays, the remainder being Siamese, half-breeds, Chinese, and natives of India. Before the Siamese invasion and conquest of 1821, the country is believed to have had a population of 50,000, which in 1839 was reduced to 21,000, the rest having either been killed in action, perished by disease and Inhabitants.

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famine, or taken refuge within the British territory. The highest of these numbers gives a relative population of less than twelve inhabitants to the square mile; the country must, therefore, at all times have been very thinly populated.

The bulk of the inhabitants are padi planters and fishermen, and living, as they do, under a comparatively good government, they are more industrious than the Malays of other States.

With the exception of a small military guard of Malays, they are not armed except with spears and krises, and, unless called upon by the Rajah to fight, they are most peaceably disposed. There are no forts or stockades on the rivers. When disturbances arise in the neighbouring States subject to Siam, Kedah has to furnish a contingent, which is found to fight very well.

Though they have little cause for gratitude to our Government, which, in spite of an implied promise to assist them, handed them over to the tender mercies of the Siamese, the Malays of Kedah are well disposed to the English, having a strong prejudice against our old rivals the Dutch. They dislike the Siamese extremely.

History.

History.

The early history of Kedah is involved in obscurity. According to Newbold, it was at one time a dependency of Malacca, and subsequently of Acheen, but for many years it has been tributary to Siam. The suzerainty of the Siamese appears, however, to have been originally regarded by us as rather nominal than real, for we find that the agreements for the cession of Penang in 1785, and of Province Wellesley in 1800, were concluded by the Honourable East India Company with the Rajah of Kedah on his sole responsibility, without any reference to the King of Siam.

After this time the Siamese seem to have interfered more actively in the affairs of Kedah, and in 1818 they compelled the Rajah, much against his own inclination, to attack and conquer Perak.

In 1821 the Rajah was either refractory or was alleged to be so, and the Siamese invaded and overran the country, massacring and enslaving most of the inhabitants. The Rajah and many of his subjects made their escape into British territory, where they found refuge. Since this period Kedah has remained under the yoke of Siam, its Government being administered by a vassal of that country.

In 1831 the Kedah people, unable to endure any longer the tyranny of the Siamese, flew to arms and captured the town of Kedah, then held by the latter. The Penang Government had, however, meanwhile recognized the supremacy of Siam over Kedah, and had undertaken not to permit the former Rajah or any of his followers to attack or disturb the territory. They accordingly interfered in favour of the invaders, and with their assistance the revolt was speedily suppressed.

The Siamese now interfere little with the government of

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Kedah, but when disturbances arise in the neighbouring States subject to Siam, Kedah is called upon to furnish a contingent.

The late Rajah (Sultan Ahmed Tajudin, ob. June, 1879) and his family have always been intimately connected with Penang, and his services to our Government in the Perak war and on other occasions, have been acknowledged by the British authorities. Under his politic rule the State has to some degree regained the prosperity which it enjoyed prior to the Siamese invasion.

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PERAK.

Geography, &c.

Situation and extent. The State of Perak, of which the District of Larut forms part, is bounded on the north by Province Wellesley and Kedah, on the east it is separated by the chain of granite mountains which forms the backbone of the Peninsula from the States of Kelantan and Tringganu, on the south it is divided by the Bernam River from Selangor, on the west it is bounded partly by the sea and partly by our recently-acquired territory of the Dindings. It measures about 100 miles from north to south, and about the same distance inland.

The district of Larut is an irregular strip of territory stretching along the coast between the Kurow and Bruas Rivers and bounded on the east by a mountain chain called the Gunong Bubo Range. It is about 70 miles in length and from 20 to 50 miles in breadth.

Coast. The coast is for the most part low and flat, indented with numerous embouchures of rivers and creeks, the latter varying from a considerable width and depth to barely the width of a small boat, with a depth of only an inch or two. Land is being formed daily along the whole of the Larut coast. The sea with each succeeding tide leaves a deposit of silt and mud on the shore, and thus thick banks are formed on which the mangrove and other marine shrubs quickly vegetate. Land which has thus been formed within the last 50 years is now being cultivated for paddy. There is so little water off this coast that gunboats cannot approach nearer than 4 or 5 miles.

Mountains. The mountain ranges of Perak are composed of granite and clay-slate ; they appear to run generally north and south.

On the east the great central chain of the Peninsula has a height of from 5,000 to 8,000 feet. In it the River Perak and its principal tributaries take their rise. Further west a mountain range, which east of Qualla Kangsa rises to an altitude of 3,700 feet, separates the valley of the Perak from that of the Kinta River. Still nearer the coast, on the eastern boundary of Larut, are the Gunong Bubo mountains, some 3,000 feet high, which run in an almost unbroken line from north to south, with detached hills at intervals at their base. In the valleys of this range most of the rivers in Larut or Upper Perak have their origin.

Topography. The Larut district, from the coast to the Gunong Bubo mountains, is flat and is divided into two strips, that bordering the coast being marshy and intersected by numerous rivers and creeks, while that at the base of the hills is of a rich alluvial soil. Here are situated the tin mines which are the principal, indeed almost

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the sole industry of the country. In the interior the country is undulating or hilly, interspersed with streams or rivulets, and often presenting most picturesque scenery.

The territory of Perak, though endowed with a remarkably fertile soil and great mineral wealth, has remained to the present time little else than an immense primeval forest. A considerable Chinese population has been attracted to the mines of Larut, but elsewhere the jungle is only broken by little Malay villages, thinly scattered along the shores, or on the banks of the rivers.

Rivers.

Perak possesses several considerable rivers. The embouchures of all, however, are much choked up by the debris and sand brought down year after year from the hills and the interior of the country by the freshets caused by the periodical rains, as well as by the alluvial deposit from their own banks. The following are the principal, taken in order from the north.

The *Kurow*, a very fine stream, coming down from the Gunong Bubo Range. It is navigable for a launch drawing $4\frac{1}{2}$ feet of water at least 40 miles from the sea, and for canoes for a distance of 80 miles.

The *Gula*, *Kalempang*, and *Spatang* are smaller streams, draining the country between the Kurow and Larut.

The *Larut* is only navigable for canoes for a distance of 25 miles. At its mouth is Teluk Kartang, the principal harbour of the territory.

The *Sungie Limo* is a small stream apparently well adapted to paddy cultivation.

The *Trong* lies about 5 miles south of the Larut, and is navigable for canoes for 56 miles.

South of the Trong are three small streams, the *Jurumas*, *Sungei Tinigie*, and *Sungei Hut*.

The *Bruos*, which lies just beyond the northern boundary of the Dinding territory, takes its rise in the Gunong Bubo Range. It is navigable for small boats for about 56 miles from its mouth. There is some fine land on its banks. A pathway leads from it to Blanja, on the Perak river.

The *Perak* is one of the largest and most rapid streams of the Peninsula. It is supposed to rise in Siamese territory, near the northern boundary of Province Wellesley, and flows due south for about 150 miles as far as Durian Sabatang, 43 miles from the entrance, from which it runs in a westerly direction to the Malacca Strait. Its banks, as far up as Banda Baru, 52 miles from the mouth, are low and marshy; above this they become higher: throughout, they are for the most part covered with jungle. Along the whole course of the river there are numerous small villages.

The Perak is sometimes as much as a mile in width, and at Qualla Kangsa, some 150 miles up, it has a breadth of 400 feet. The entrance is narrow, but vessels of nine feet draught can always cross the bar at high water: those of greater draught should not attempt it, except at springs. Inside, the river is wide

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and deep, and is navigable for vessels of 11 feet draught as far as Durian Sabatang. Steam launches can ascend as far as Kotah Lumut, 48 miles from the entrance.

At Kotah Stiah, 25 miles from the bar, the Perak receives the River Dedap, which drains the country to the north of the former river. The Dedap flows for about 40 miles parallel to the Perak, and is almost all the way tidal. The country through which it flows is rather marshy. The water of the Perak river is fresh two miles above Kotah Stiah.

Durian Sabatang, 43 miles up, is the port of Lower Perak, and the seat of government of the district. Spring tides here rise 12 feet. The ebb stream runs at $2\frac{1}{2}$ to 3 knots. The Perak receives near this place two rapid rivers, the Bidor and Batang Padang, both of which descend from the main range, their sources being 18 miles apart. These rivers have promising villages, and a population of, probably, 1,500 people on each.

Five miles higher, on the right bank, is the village of Kotah Lumut, the highest point steam launches can reach. Above it the river is rapid, and shallow when not in flood. It can only be ascended by native boats of light draught, which are propelled up stream by poles, making way at the rate of about a mile an hour. In travelling down stream, paddles are used.

The *Kinta* river, which enters the Perak about three-quarters of a mile above Kotah Lumut, has a current of about $2\frac{1}{2}$ miles an hour. It rises and falls very rapidly. Its banks are generally flat, and its valley is rich in tin. On the Kinta and its branches there is a population of some 2,000 people. At the town of Kinta which is situated on the left bank, about 40 miles from its mouth, the width of the river varies from 70 to 230 feet, and it is fordable at almost any point, except after the heavy rains.

The tides are felt on the Perak river as far as the mouth of the Kinta. Four miles above this, and on a small island in the Perak river, is Banda Baru, formerly the site of the British Residency, and some 30 miles higher is the town of Blanja.

At Qualla Kangsa, 150 miles from its mouth, the Perak receives from the westward the River Kangsa. The villages along this stream are very fine, with about 1,000 inhabitants.

At Chigah Gala, 10 miles above Qualla Kangsa, the Perak receives the Vlus River, coming from the eastward; and 10 miles higher, at Buluk Minujak, are the first rapids.

The *Bernam*, which forms the southern boundary of Perak, is one of the largest rivers on this side of the Peninsula. It takes its rise in the main range, and far up in the interior it is joined by the Slim River. Its entrance is 2 miles wide, and there is a depth of 8 feet on the bar at low water. It is navigable by a steam launch for 100 miles, and a large steamer could ascend it for a considerable distance.

Districts. Perak is divided into four districts, viz., Larut, Durian Sabatang, or Lower Perak, Qualla Kangsa, and Krian.

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Harbours.

The principal port of Perak is Tĕlok Kartang, at the mouth of the Larut river, whence steamers run to Penang, &c.

The harbour of Lower Perak is Durian Sabatang, 43 miles up the Perak River. It is accessible to steamers and large native craft, and is provided with a strong jetty capable of accommodating vessels of considerable tonnage.

Communications.

Roads.

There is at present no communication by road between the Krian and Larut, and though, owing to the nature of the country, which is low and marshy, there will be difficulties in making one, it is advisable that a road with a telegraph line along it should be constructed, thus connecting Perak and Penang. The work has already been begun.

A good metalled road connects the port of Telok Kartang with Taiping Kola, the seat of the Assistant Resident of Larut (8 miles) and the mining Settlement of Kamunting (12 miles). Between Taiping and Kamunting the road passes through the spurs of the Assam Kumbang Range, and, owing to the numerous streams, it has been necessary to construct, in the short space of $2\frac{1}{2}$ miles, no fewer than 10 bridges. The average size of these bridges is 12 feet by 16 feet; they are all made of wood procured from the neighbouring forest.

At Sempang, about two miles from Teluk Kartang, a branch road diverges from the main road and leads through a thinly populated country to Qualla Kangsa, 22 miles distant, the seat of the Resident of Perak. At 9 miles on this road is Bukit Gantang, the residence of the Mantri of Larut, and at 13 miles it passes through the Brapit Pass. In the greater part of its length it is in fair order and tolerably level.

The above are the only roads in the country deserving the name; the remainder are mere elephant tracks through the jungle, and of these there are very few. The path from Blanja to Kinta, which was traversed by our troops in 1875, is described as being from 2 to 3 feet in width, kept in no repair, and from being constantly travelled over by elephants very full of large holes, which, when full of water, as is usually the case, become very dangerous. Many small streams also cross and run along the track, and during heavy rains the water in it is about 4 feet deep. When the revenue admits of it, the country will be gradually opened up.

It is contemplated soon to construct a railway from Telok Kartang to Taiping Kotah, which will relieve 6 miles of the road from heavy traffic.

Land transport.

Throughout Perak the buffalo is domesticated, and is used not only for agricultural purposes but as a beast of burden. The load is placed in panniers made of cane, which are slung on to the sides of the animals. This method of conveying goods is principally

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adopted by the Malays in the interior, where the absence of roads precludes the possibility of transport by carts. In Larut, where roads exist, buffaloes are also used in carts, but invariably singly, as a pair cannot be yoked, on account of their widely-spreading horns.

Bullocks are more generally used as draught cattle in Larut than buffaloes; they are invariably yoked in pairs. The vehicle for which they are employed is a two-wheeled cart, with a body measuring about 6 feet by 4 feet, and capable of holding about half a ton. The drivers are principally natives of Madras.

Elephants are employed by the Rajahs and chiefs for traffic, the goods being packed in strong panniers of cane, similar to those used for the buffalo. Tin to the weight of half a ton can be carried by a full-grown elephant, but rice only to half that weight.

The coolies from the mines of Larut make good carriers.

Water transport.

The Perak river, with its branches, forms the principal means of communication in the interior of the country. The navigability of this and the other rivers has been already alluded to (page 139).

Telegraphs.

A telegraph line connects Matang (near the port of Telok Kartang) with the Residencies at Taiping and Qualla Kangsa. It will no doubt in time be extended.

Towns.

Kinta, the former capital of Perak, which consists of about 110 houses, is situated on the left bank of Kinta River, about 40 miles from its mouth, and is 8 or 10 miles distant from the range of mountains which bound Perak on the east. It is surrounded by dense jungle and marsh, with little extent of cultivated ground. A path leads from it to Blanja, on the Perak River, 16 or 17 miles distant; tracks also run north and south along the banks of the stream, which near the town varies from 70 to 230 feet in width, and is fordable almost anywhere, except after heavy rains. The following description of the houses of Kinta is probably applicable to the other towns and villages of the country. The houses, which are raised from the ground on piles to the height of about 5 feet, are simply mat huts, built of spars fastened together with bamboo lashings, the framework thus formed being covered with leaf thatching called "attap." In the best houses, the sides are covered with a better kind of matting, called "kadjan." The roofs are in most cases covered with "attap," and are given the great slope of 60° on account of the heavy rains. The rough framework of the floor is covered with bamboo laths, lashed together, and in the best houses this is again covered with matting. A small patch of garden is attached to each house.

Qualla Kangsa, now the seat of the Resident of Perak and the place of meeting of the State Council, is situated on the right bank of the river, about 150 miles from its mouth. It contains the Resident's house, Police Barracks, Court-house, &c.

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Taiping, the seat of the Assistant Resident of Larut, is situated in the centre of the tin mines, about 12 miles from the mouth of the Larut River. It has over 5,000 inhabitants, principally Chinese, about one-tenth being shopkeepers. It contains several public buildings, including Assistant Resident's House, Court-house, gaol, hospital for 50 patients, stores, Public Works Office, Police Barracks (two buildings, one for Sikhs and one for Malays, capable of holding about 50 men each), resthouse, &c.

Kamunting, a prosperous mining village, about 4 miles north of Taiping, has a Chinese population of about 4,000, with 300 shops.

Durian Sabatang, on the left bank of the Perak River, 43 miles from its mouth, is the port of Lower Perak, and the seat of administration of the district. The village has been twice burnt down within a few years, and has now been arranged on a proper plan, with wide streets and more substantial houses. Population, 400 or 500 Malays, and the same number of Chinese. The place has not yet the appearance of a busy port, but as the rich country on the Perak River and its tributaries become developed, it seems likely that Durian Sabatang will grow in importance. It contains Superintendent's house and office, Court-house, separate quarters for the Sikh and Malay Police, storehouse, &c., also many well-stored shops.

Climate.

The climate of Perak is hot and moist, but, except at the bases of the mountain range, where there is always more or less malaria, is not unhealthy. It is more favourable for Europeans than that of most tropical countries. The Malays and Chinese suffer from febrile attacks, scrofulous affections and ulcers on the legs and ankles, but these forms of disease are believed to be attributable to the salt fish, which forms so large a portion of their diet.

This part of the Malay Peninsula is protected from the influence of the monsoons by the high mountains of Sumatra on the one side, and by the range which forms the backbone of the Peninsula on the other, and is consequently only subject to the usual land and sea breezes, calms and variable winds, interrupted by occasional squalls.

In the low country the thermometer seldom rises higher in the shade during the day than 86°, while at night it frequently sinks to 65°, the temperature on the hills being proportionately less. The mornings and evenings are invariably cool and refreshing, and warm covering is often indispensable at night. The heat of the noon-day sun is tempered so materially by a breeze which almost always blows freshly from the hills, that fatal effect has never been known to result from it.

The rainfall is great from about the middle of August to the end of December, but during the remainder of the year the weather,

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though decidedly wet, does not in any way interfere with agricultural operations.

Productions.

Agriculture.

The soil of Perak is remarkably fertile; but, in consequence of long continued bad government, there has hitherto been but little cultivation. The only cereal grown to any extent is the rice plant, of which there are three varieties; one cultivated chiefly on the plains, and the other two on higher ground. The other articles cultivated by the natives are sugar-cane, coffee, tapioca, Indian corn, tobacco, the cocoa-nut, the jaggary palm, from which a good deal of coarse sugar is made, the areca palm, the betel vine, brinjal, pumpkin, and the labu—a gourd which is dried and is the common water vessel of the country.

The forests contain numerous durable woods, all well adapted for building purposes; also others yielding gums and drugs, as india-rubber, gutta-percha, copal, catechu, &c.

The eastern slopes of the Larut hills seem admirably adapted for the growth of coffee, tea, cinchona, vanilla, nutmegs, cloves, &c., while the plains are equally well fitted for plantations of sugar,* tobacco, tapioca, &c. The expense of clearing jungle is at the average rate of 6 dollars an acre, and Malay coolies can always be obtained at 25 cents a-day. American coffee, South American india-rubber, African coffee, and other plants have lately been introduced and promise to become important cultivations.

Domestic animals.

Buffaloes, goats, fowls and ducks are plentiful throughout the country.

Fish.

Fish in great variety are very abundant at the mouths of the rivers and along the whole of the sea coast, affording the principal subsistence of the seafaring Malays. Several ingenious methods are used for netting them. Fresh fish is sold by the fishermen to hawkers at 2*d.* per lb., who retail it in the interior at 6*d.* per lb.

Supplies.

Europeans find no difficulty in obtaining varieties of food in Larut, the markets being well stocked with buffalo meat, fish, ducks (price 50 cents), fowls (5 for a dollar), all kinds of tinned stores, wine, beer, biscuits, many kinds of vegetables, &c.

Wild animals.

The dense forests and jungles of the interior afford homes to numerous kinds of wild animals, including wild elephants, wild cattle, rhinoceros (two varieties), tigers (three species), leopards, bears, boars, deer of several species, civet cat, armadilloes, monkeys, racoons, lemurs, and sloths, &c.

Jungle fowl are exceedingly numerous, also the whistling teal, snipe, golden plover, and the argus and other pheasants.

Among reptiles the iguana, turtle, anaconda, boa-constrictor, cobra, and many other species of snake, both poisonous and harmless, are indigenous. The crocodile abounds in every river and tidal creek.

* European capital to a considerable extent has lately been invested in the opening of a large sugar estate near the mouth of the Perak River.

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Minerals.

The tin mines of Larut form the principal industry of the country, affording employment to large numbers of Chinese. Nearly half the revenue of Perak is derived from this source. The mines at present worked are in the neighbourhood of Taiping. The ore is found in the plains at depths varying from 20 to 30 feet, but at the foot of the hills it lies within 6 feet of the surface.

There is no doubt that the whole country contains more or less tin, and it is probable that as the land towards the mountains becomes cleared, valuable lodes will be found.

The exports consist only of tin and gutta-percha, and, to a limited extent, hides, horns, and coffee.

The principal articles of import are opium, cattle, pigs, provisions (chiefly rice, sugar, and salt fish), and treasure, the latter consisting of Mexican dollars, the chief medium of exchange.

Inhabitants.

The population of Perak is estimated at 43,000, including 30,000 Malays, 12,000 Chinese, and 1,000 natives of India. The Chinese are to be found almost exclusively in Larut, where they form the bulk of the population; the remainder of the country is thinly peopled by Malays, who live in small campongs or villages along the Perak River and its tributaries. The mountains of the interior also contain some wild and wandering tribes known as "Orang Sakei;" they are said to be harmless and docile, and to make good coolies.

The general characteristics of the Malay and Chinese races have been already described (pages 8–9–10). The Malays of Perak are essentially lazy and unenterprising. Small and crowded villages, with a few acres of paddy land adjoining and a few plantain trees, suffice for their wants; of trade they have but little idea. Owing to the long continued bad government, there has hitherto been but little inducement to industry, the petty chiefs and their retainers living on what they could squeeze from the rayahs or serfs.

The system of "bar utang," or debt slavery also, which has existed in the country from the earliest times, has done much to retard its prosperity. According to this custom, a Malay, on being unable to pay a fine to which he has been sentenced, becomes the slave of his creditor for years, perhaps even for life; the special injustice of the system consists in the fact that even should he be subsequently in a position to pay for his ransom, the creditor is not bound to receive it, and should the money not be paid, although the debtor is able and willing to pay it, not only himself, but his family and his descendants remain slaves for ever to the creditor and his descendants. Another phase of the custom is that should a man have borrowed money for a given time, and be at the expiration of the period unable to pay, he and his family become in like manner debtors for life.

In this manner three-fourths of the Malay population are bound over to the remaining quarter. An endeavour is now being

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made to put down this abuse, and in time the system will totally disappear.

The Malays of Perak are very clannish, and have a love of independence which renders them intractable to European ways; though they will do anything they are ordered by their chiefs, to whom they are much attached. Still, it cannot be said that the bulk of the people are ill-disposed to our rule; and beyond a sulky disposition manifested by some of the chiefs, who find their occupation (extortion and robbery) gone, there is little opposition to the present form of government. Now that the principal opponents of the new order of things have been removed or pensioned, it will be comparatively easy in time to develop the resources of the country, and give the people a chance of improving their condition; though but little industry or improvement can be expected from the present generation.

The Perak Malays are more deceitful than those of Kedah. In dealing with them it is necessary to be most on one's guard, when they, especially after opposition to the views urged upon them, appear most amenable.

It is impossible to estimate correctly the number of Malays in Perak capable of bearing arms, but the proportion ever likely to be brought against us is very small compared to the population. No chief could muster much more than a thousand men, and nothing like combined action is to be feared. They are badly armed, having only a few telas (guns) of small calibre, and old-fashioned rifles, the majority being only armed with spears and krises. The chiefs and people are so poor that they could be starved out in a short time by blockading the mouths of the rivers, by which alone they can obtain supplies of rice.

As already mentioned (page 9), they are very clever at constructing stockades, the capture of which, when the use of artillery has been neglected, has sometimes entailed serious loss. The country being chiefly jungle, with rivers and elephant tracks as the only means of communication, the difficulty of carrying even the lightest guns, and of procuring transport for commissariat purposes is very great.

The peculiar phase of madness known among the Malays by the name of running "amok" still exists in Perak, but not to any great extent.

Chinese.

The Chinese settlers in Larut are many of them naturalized British subjects from Penang. They are, as elsewhere, very enterprising and industrious. The miners are all Chinese, and the trade of the district is principally in their hands. While they were under native government, fighting was the order of the day, but under an English Resident they live peaceably. They are on the whole easily governed, but they require to be carefully watched, and in dealing with them firmness and decision are essential. The secret societies, which have been found objectionable in other places (*see* page 47), are forbidden in Larut. About four-fifths of

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the Chinese are miners: the remainder are tradesmen, shopkeepers, blacksmiths, gardeners, carpenters, &c.

Languages.

The Malay language is that most spoken even in Larut, Chinese being beyond the power of a Malay to acquire. Another reason, which here, as in any foreign country, would prove a serious obstacle to Chinese becoming a universal language, is the number of dialects, each wholly different from the other, of which it is composed. It is not uncommon to see two Chinamen conversing in Malay, being totally unable to comprehend each other in their dissimilar Chinese.

Food.

The principal food of both Chinese and Malays is rice, to which they add salt fish for seasoning. The Malays, being Mahomedans, never touch pork, which is a favourite dish of the Chinese. Fish forms the principal subsistence of the seafaring Malays.

History.

The State of Perak was formerly tributary to the Malayan sovereigns of Malacca, and afterwards to those of Acheen. On the decline of that power it became in a measure independent, although Siam at various periods asserted claims to its sovereignty, and demanded tribute.

Its first intercourse with the British appears to have taken place in 1818, when a treaty was concluded by the East India Company providing against the monopoly of the tin trade by the Dutch, and securing to British merchants the privilege of trading with Perak on terms as favourable as any other nation. In the same year, in consequence of the resistance shown by its ruler to the pretensions of the Siamese, the country was overrun by troops from the neighbouring province of Kedah, who invaded it by order of the King of Siam. In 1822, the Siamese were expelled and the rightful chief restored by the powerful assistance of the Rajah of Selangor. In 1826, a treaty was concluded between the East India Company and Siam, by which at our instigation the latter country declared the independence of Perak, both the contracting parties agreeing that its Rajah should govern his own territory according to his own will.

The discovery of tin in Larut in 1848 attracted thither numbers of Chinese, by whom the mineral resources of the country began to be developed. The immigrants belonged to two parties, the See-Kwans and the Go-Kwans, between whom there was a strong feeling of animosity; but for some time the Chief of Larut, called the "Mantri," who was to a considerable extent independent of the Sultan of Perak, was able to keep a nominal control over both factions. In 1862, however, their numbers had so much increased that, on dissensions then breaking out amongst them, the Mantri thought it better, in order to keep his own position, to side with one of the parties, the Go-Kwans, who with his aid

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succeeded in driving most of their rivals out of the country. During the next 10 years matters in Larut were pretty peaceful.

In 1871 the Sultan of Perak died, and disputes arose regarding the succession to the throne. The rightful heir, according to Malay law and usage, was Abdullah the "Rajah Muda," but by some intrigue his title was ignored, and another chief, Ismail the "Rajah Bandahara," was proclaimed Sultan. Abdullah contended for his rights of sovereignty and half of the chiefs sided with him, the others supporting Ismail. Among the latter was the Mantri, who hoped by espousing Ismail's cause to obtain his object of establishing Larut as an independent kingdom.

Shortly after, fresh disturbances broke out amongst the Chinese in Larut, and soon assumed a most serious aspect. The Mantri, finding that his former allies were not comparatively so powerful as before, turned in favour of the See-Kwans, and the Go-Kwans then made common cause with the Rajah Abdullah. The dispute concerning the succession to the throne of Perak may be said to have thenceforward merged in the more determined quarrel between the Chinese factions, and so complete was the ruin brought about by this most disastrous warfare that Larut became almost depopulated; villages were demolished wholesale, and thousands of people massacred.

The British authorities at first remained neutral, and prohibited the export of arms and ammunition to Larut, but subsequently cancelled the order so far as it related to the Mantri, who had in fact all the moral support of the Government at Penang.

The Go-Kwans sent out fast armed row-boats to blockade the coast, and especially to look out for provisions. The men in these boats were at first only combatants against their rivals, the See-Kwans, but at last, becoming desperate for want of supplies, they attacked all boats indiscriminately, and committed such atrocities that the British Government could no longer refrain from interfering. Accordingly, in the autumn of 1873, H.M. ships Thalia and Midge were despatched to the coast of Larut and succeeded, after some opposition, in destroying several stockades and large fighting junks. Their efforts to suppress the piratical proceedings were not, however, attended with any successful results, the vessels being unprovided with steam launches, and the ordinary ship's boats proving wholly unable to overtake and capture the fast-pulling native row-boats.

Such was the state of things when, in November, 1873, Sir A. Clarke became Governor of the Straits Settlements; and he lost no time in taking steps for putting an end to a nuisance and a danger, which not only affected the trade but threatened the peace of our Colony. Proceeding to the Dinding Islands, off the coast of Perak, he assembled the Rajah (Abdullah), the Mantri, and several of the other principal chiefs, as well as some of the leading Chinamen of both the contending factions; and after investigating

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the claims of the rival candidates, he induced the chiefs to accept Abdullah as their Sultan, the Mantri being confirmed in the governorship of Larut. In order to guard against a relapse into anarchy, the Sultan and the Mantri engaged to receive at their respective courts, and to maintain at their expense, a British Resident and assistant Resident, whose advice was to be taken and acted upon in the collection and control of all revenues, and in all matters of general administration other than those touching Malay religion and custom. The Sultan and chiefs were also induced to concede our long-standing claims to the ownership of the Dinding territory, and to agree to a rectification of the southern boundary of Province Wellesley, which was now defined by the watershed of the Krian River. The Chinese consented to submit all their disputes to British arbitration, to dismantle their stockades, and to give up their arms.

An Assistant Resident was at once appointed to Larut. The claims regarding the disputed mines were settled by drawing a line through the mining country, and settling the See-Kwans to the north and the Go-Kwans to the south of it; and the tranquility of that district has since remained undisturbed.

Perak proper, however, as distinguished from Larut, did not prosper under the new state of things to the extent anticipated. A Resident was appointed in December, 1874, and stationed at Banda Baru, on the Perak River; but, in consequence of the bad faith of the Sultan, he found himself utterly powerless to improve the condition of the country, Abdullah taking the collection of revenue into his own hands, and setting the advice of the Resident completely at nought.

Under these circumstances, Sir W. Jervois, who had succeeded Sir A. Clarke as Governor of the Straits Settlements, resolved upon a change of system, and in September, 1875, proposed that the direct power of government should be given into the hands of two British Commissioners, who were to administer the country in the name of the Sultan, and with the assistance of a Malay Council; the Sultan, and other chiefs entitled to payments by the State, to receive allowances. Abdullah consented to this arrangement which also seemed agreeable to the majority of the chiefs and people; and it was not anticipated that, in carrying it out, any opposition would be met with.

Proclamations, announcing the new *régime*, were accordingly prepared in the Malay language, and were posted, under the Resident's supervision, in several villages without any dissatisfac tion being manifested. On the 2nd of November, however, at a place called Passir Sala, about five miles above the Residency, the proclamations were torn down, the Resident's escort was attacked, and he himself was murdered. The affray arose apparently in an accidental manner, but was believed to have been in accordance with a previously-arranged plan, to which nearly all the chiefs of the country were privy.

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The only available fighting element under English officers then in Perak, consisted of the Resident's guard, about 70 Sikhs, stationed at Banda Baru, and a larger body, about 200 strong, of the same composition, under the Assistant Resident in Larut; but on the news of the murder reaching Penang, a force of 2 officers and 60 men of the 1 | 10th Regiment, was at once despatched to Banda Baru, where they arrived on the 6th of November, and on the following morning started to destroy the village of Passir Sala. On their way to this place, however, they suddenly came under the fire of a stockade, which had been hidden from view by standing corn. After trying in vain to dislodge the enemy by means of rockets, they attempted to take the work by assault, but suffered in a short time such severe loss (15 men killed and wounded, including all the officers) that it was determined to retire to the Residency, and await further reinforcements.

These soon began to arrive, and by the 14th of November the available force at Banda Baru consisted of three officers and 131 men of the 1 | 10th Regiment; one officer and 20 men Royal Artillery, with a 7-pr. gun; and a Naval Brigade of 10 officers, 60 seamen and 15 marines, with two rocket tubes, one 7-pr. gun, two 12-pr. howitzers, and a small Coehorn mortar.

On the 15th of November an expedition was undertaken against the stockades previously attacked, and the village of Passir Sala. The force was for this purpose divided into a land and a river party: the former consisting of the Infantry, Artillery and Marines; while the latter, which was conveyed in six boats and a steam gig, comprised the remainder of the Naval Brigade, with their guns and rockets.

The combined attack of the two parties proved completely successful. After six hours' continuous fighting against a stubborn resistance, the stockades and village were taken and destroyed, with a loss of only one man wounded.

Resistance was not, however, at an end. The leaders of the outbreak, whom it was deemed necessary to secure if possible, had retreated up the river, and thence to Kinta, the principal town of the country, situated some 15 miles inland, and here a determined stand was expected. The troops therefore returned to the Residency to await further orders.

On receiving intelligence of the unsuccessful attack of the 7th November, Sir W. Jervois, the Governor of the Straits Settlements sent from Singapore to Banda Baru 80 more men of the 1 | 10th Regiment, with half a battery of Royal Artillery, and also telegraphed to India and to Hong Kong for reinforcements. The following troops were accordingly despatched to Perak.

From Hong Kong.

300 Officers and men of Her Majesty's 80th Regiment, under Major-Gen. Colborne, commanding the troops in China and the Straits.

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From Calcutta.

Her Majesty's 3rd Regiment (Buffs),	about	600	strong.
1st Ghoorkas	„	450	„
1 Battery R.A., with 7-pr. mountain gun,	„	120	„
1 Company Madras Sappers	„	80	„

Under Brig.-Gen. Ross, C.B.

The general plan of operations was that the troops from Hong Kong should proceed to the Residency at Banda Baru by way of the Perak River; while the Indian column was directed to land at the mouth of the Larut River, and thence march to Qualla Kangsa, the nearest point on the Perak River, a distance of some 20 miles. It was then proposed that an expedition should ascend the river from Banda Baru, to meet a similar force coming down from Qualla Kangsa, and that the combined force should land and advance on Kinta.

In consequence, however, of disturbances having broken out in the neighbouring State of Sungei Ujong, it was found necessary to divert thither part of Gen. Ross' column (250 Ghoorkas with half a Battery R.A.), and, as will be seen, the Indian force was unable to take part in Gen. Colborne's movement on Kinta.

A number of Her Majesty's ships had also meanwhile arrived on the station, and from them naval brigades were formed, one of which acted with Gen. Colborne, another with Gen. Ross, and a third in Sungei Ujong.

Gen. Colborne experienced considerable difficulty in procuring suitable boats for the transport of his force, as also men to pole them (rowing being impracticable in consequence of the strength of the current). Eventually this difficulty was overcome, and on the 8th of December he advanced up the river from Banda Bahru with the following troops:—

Royal Artillery,	about	40 men
1 | 10th Regt.,	„	100 „
80th Regt.,	„	100 „
Naval Brigade,	„	70 „

After five days' travelling, Blanja, the point of disembarkation, was reached. Here 50 men of the 1 | 10th Regt. were left, and the remainder of the force started at once for Kinta. The detachment Royal Artillery had with them two 7-pr. guns, and the Naval Brigade carried two Hale's rocket tubes.

Some opposition was met with on the way, but the chief difficulty was the transport of guns, ammunition and stores, over an almost impassable jungle path. No coolies could be obtained, but about 70 of the men who had poled the boats up were impressed as carriers.

After three days' toilsome march, during which one of the guns had to be left behind, Kinta was occupied on the 17th of December with but slight resistance from the enemy. Here the force remained for some time.

Owing to want of boats and coolies, the Indian column was unable to make any movement from Qualla Kangsa till the 19th

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of December. On that day a force of about 250 men (composed of the Buffs, Ghoorkas and Naval Brigade), under Colonel Storey, descended the river to Blanja, and thence followed Gen. Colborne to Kinta, where they arrived on the 21st of December. General Ross, with the main body of his column, remained at Qualla Kangsa.

On the 4th of January, 1875, an expedition was organized by General Ross to disarm the hostile village of Kota Lama, situated about two miles from Qualla Kangsa, which had long been the haunt of all the worst disposed and most turbulent Malays. No resistance was at first offered, but when the troops were off their guard, a determined attack was made on them, resulting in the loss of one officer and three men, whilst General Ross and his Staff had a narrow escape. The Malays were, however, quickly put to flight, and the village burned.

Several subsequent expeditions were directed, in the course of the next few weeks, against Kota Lama and other disaffected villages in the neighbourhood, and were all successfully carried out. As, however, the enemy generally took to flight on the appearance of the troops, little loss was inflicted on them.

No further engagement of any note took place in Perak, and after about a year's occupation the troops were withdrawn, being replaced by a native police force chiefly composed of Indians.

All the persons implicated in the murder of the Resident were eventually secured, and either executed, imprisoned, or deported to the Seychelles; among the latter being Sultan Abdullah, the ruling chief of the State. Since April, 1876, the country has been perfectly quiet, and there seems to be no danger of any renewal of disturbances.

Administration.

Upon the restoration of order, the future administration of Perak received the fullest attention of Her Majesty's Government, and the policy which was finally decided upon by the Secretary of State is now being carried out.

Raja Muda Yusuf, the next heir to the Sultanate after the deportation of Abdullah, was left at the head of affairs, and a Resident was appointed to his Court to give influential and responsible advice to him, to maintain peace and law, to initiate a sound system of taxation with the consequent development of the resources of the country, and to supervise the collection of the revenue.

Officers were also appointed by the State to exercise magisterial and other functions under the Resident, but without other responsibility.

To assist the Resident in the due performance of his duties, a mixed Council of State, consisting of some of the principal chiefs

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and of the higher European officers of Government, has been appointed; and in this Council the chief authority of the country is vested.

The Resident is in direct subordination to the Secretariat in Singapore, and receives from the Government of the Straits Settlements all directions as to the advice he is to tender; it is further his duty to report to this Government all decisions arrived at by the State Council.

The footing upon which the Government now stands with the chiefs of Perak is essentially a friendly one, and the regent's two sons are at this moment receiving an education from a Government schoolmaster. The State is being rapidly opened up, and with the careful management which it now enjoys there is every probability of its future being a prosperous one.

For purposes of administration, Perak is divided into four districts, viz:—

Larut, by far the richest and most important district, containing the State Treasury, the Head-quarters of the Police and Public Works, the principal port of the country, &c., under the immediate supervision of the Assistant Resident. Residency at Taiping.

Qualla Kangsa, under the personal charge of the Resident of Perak, who lives in the town of that name.

Lower Perak, administered by a Superintendent, resident at Durian Sabatang.

Krian, under a Collector and Magistrate, head-quarters at Parit Buntar, on the left bank of the Krian River.

The Malay villages are presided over by native officials termed Punghulus, who collect the local revenues, receiving a percentage thereof, are responsible for good order being kept, arrest offenders, and provide, on requisition from the proper authorities, a certain number of men and boats for the public service.

The Chinese population is managed through the Chinese headmen.

The organization of the police force is good: it is under the command of a Superintendent and two assistant Superintendents, all Europeans.

Finance.

Under the present Government, the revenue of Perak has steadily increased year by year. In 1878 the amount was $329,000, in 1879, $388,000, in 1880, $582,000, and in 1881, $609,000 (estimated). The greater part is contributed by the district of Larut.

About half the revenue is derived from the duty on tin, then come the import duty on opium and the rents of the excise farms (including gambling, pawnbroking, and toddy farms, &c.), the remainder being made up of a considerable number of less

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important items, such as duty on gutta-percha, the sale of timber, harbour dues, &c.

The expenditure for the year 1880 was $522,000, the chief items being establishments, allowances to chiefs, and public works, including the construction and upkeep of roads.

The public debt, which in 1877 amounted to $451,000, had been reduced in 1880 to $215,000.

Money, Weights & Measures.

As in the Straits Settlements.

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SELANGOR.

Geography, &c.

The territory of Selangor, or Salangore, is bounded on the north by Perak, from which it is separated by the Bernam River, on the east by the range of mountains which forms the backbone of the Peninsula, and on the south by the State of Sungei Ujong. It has a coast-line of 140 miles, for the most part low, jungle-covered, and skirted by a mud bank. The territory is said to be a magnificent one, watered and opened up by fine navigable rivers, and possessing a fertile soil with great mineral resources; but, in consequence of the incessant quarrels of its Rajahs, it has long been in a deserted state and has been very little cultivated. Now that a settled Government has been established, it may be expected that the land will be brought under cultivation, instead of being left to jungle as hitherto.

The principal rivers are the Bernam, Selangor, Klang and Langat. Rivers.

The *Bernam* is one of the finest rivers on the Malay coast, its entrance being about 2 miles wide. It has a depth of 17 feet on the bar at high water, or 8 feet at low water. A large steamer could ascend it for a considerable distance, and a steam launch for 100 miles.

The *Selangor* is also a large river with several considerable tributaries; it has a tortuous course, its banks very low and lined with mangroves. It is navigable for boats for about 90 miles, and for steam vessels with a draught of 8 feet for 14 miles.

The *Klang* runs for a distance of 30 or 40 miles in the interior. Its banks are high and covered with mangroves and palms. It is from 2 to 4 cables broad at the entrance, and is free from danger for about 11 miles from the entrance. Vessels drawing 8½ feet can proceed up for a distance of 12 miles above the town of Klang, which is 10 miles from the sea.

The *Langat* has two mouths, one of which (the *Langat*), opens into Lumant Strait, the other (the *Jugra*) into the sea about ten miles further south. The town of Langat, which is situated at the junction, is 25 miles from the sea by the Langat, and about 7 by the Jugra. The Langat River is navigable to a distance of 10 or 12 miles above the town by a gun vessel, and has a depth of 3 or 4 fathoms. The Jugra is only safe for steam launches and small craft. It is, however, both widening and deepening year by year.

The Sultanate of Selangor consists of four distinct provinces: *Bernam*,* *Selangor*, *Klang* and *Langat*, each on the river of the same name. Provinces.

* In July, 1880, the administration of the district of Bernam was transferred to the Government of Perak.

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Communications.

Roads. In the interior several good cart-roads have been formed, connecting the various mining Settlements with the landing places on the rivers, where the ore is shipped. It is very desirable that a road should be constructed through the territory, connecting Slim in Perak with the mines of Bernam, Selangor and Klang, and continued to Sungei Ujong, from which an existing road communicates with Malacca.

A steamer runs once a week between Malacca and Klang.

Towns.

Klang. The town of *Klang*, or Penkalen Batu, which is the seat of Government and the residence of the Viceroy and British Resident,* is situated on the river of the same name, about ten miles from the sea. It has only 800 inhabitants, and their numbers are decreasing. It is defended by a fort and stockades. It contains Government offices, police barracks, prison, hospital for 50 patients, &c. A road is being constructed to Langat, 14 miles distant.

Qualla Lumpor. Twenty miles higher up, on the left bank of the river is *Qualla Lumpor*, the depôt for all the mines in the district, which has the most flourishing appearance of any Settlement in the Peninsula.* The town is well laid out and the houses are roomy and substantial. It possesses a market and numbers of good shops, both Chinese and Malay. Boats are numerous. There are about 1,000 Chinese and 700 Malays resident in the town, the authorities being a Captain China and a Toh Dagang. In the neighbourhood including the mines there is a population of about 7,000 Malays and Chinese. Good bullock-cart roads run from the town to the mines; a brickfield and kiln have lately been established here, and a large number of excellent bricks and tiles already produced.

Langat. *Langat*, at the junction of the Langat and Jugra Rivers, is the residence of the Sultan. Its situation is very low, and houses are constantly washed away by the tide. It has about 700 inhabitants, and a considerable number of shops, kept both by Malays and Chinese. There is a considerable native trade between Langat and Malacca.

Selangor. The town of *Selangor*, situated on both banks of the river of that name near its mouth, which was destroyed by us in 1871, does not seem now to possess much importance.

Productions, etc.

Vegetable productions, &c. The soil of Selangor is very fertile, well suited for growth of almost all kinds of tropical produce, as rice, coffee, tea, sugar, sago, pepper, gambier, tobacco, &c.; but in consequence of the state of anarchy which has prevailed till within the last few years, agri-

* During the year 1880, the Residency and the head-quarters of the police, Treasury, and other departments were transferred from Klang to Qualla Lumpor.

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culture has been almost entirely neglected, and there is at present little land under cultivation. On both sides of the Selangor river there are miles of deserted cocoa-nut and sago plantations quite untenanted. Now, however, there are signs of reviving prosperity, and it is to be expected that the country will soon present a more flourishing appearance. A European Company in Singapore has lately obtained a concession of a tract of land for the purpose of an agricultural venture, which, it is hoped, will prove a success; and one of the leading planters in Ceylon has applied for ground to open a coffee estate.

The territory is richly wooded. Gutta-percha and rattans are abundant, and are exported to some extent. Some of the hills are covered with large camphor trees, hitherto undisturbed.

Some parts of the country are infested by tigers, wild pigs, and elephants. There are no tame elephants, though they might be most advantageously used for transport. Animals.

The coasts abound with fish of excellent quality, large quantities of which are cured for export. Fish.

The principal industry of Selangor is tin mining. The principal mines are situated in the watersheds of the Selangor, Klang, Lukut, and Langat rivers, the largest quantity being produced in the Klang district. Gold is also found in washing the tin. Owing to the very low price of tin which existed in 1879, the mining interests of the State suffered to such an extent as to threaten the abandonment of many of the mines, and several of those yielding poor ores were closed. Mines.

Inhabitants.

Selangor is very thinly inhabited. The population does not, probably, exceed 18,000, of whom 5,000 are Chinese. The inhabitants of the coast are chiefly Bugis from Celebes. They were formerly much addicted to piracy. As a rule, they are too proud to work, only doing so when they have actually no other resource to gain a livelihood. It will take years of good government before they can be changed into husbandmen and traders. They are, however, now pretty quiet: though attached to their chiefs, like other Malays, and strongly conservative, they are not disaffected towards the established Government. During the recent disturbances in the neighbouring States, the Resident of Selangor was able, without the assistance of troops, to hold his own, and no rising took place. Two of the principal chiefs did good service during the operations in Perak, furnishing scouts, and engaging actively in the pursuit of Mr. Birch's murderers. Inhabitants.

As in the other States, the only people likely to give trouble are the petty chiefs. "The Government in the Malay States," says a writer on the subject, "though nominally in the hands of one sovereign, is really divided between a number of chiefs. These, like the feudal barons of old, are independent masters of their own bit of territory; they levy their own taxes, and are perpetually

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encroaching on, and being encroached upon by, their neighbours. Each chief has a swarm of needy brothers, cousins, and followers, who consider themselves bound to be supported by him in dignified idleness; for to work is unfashionable, and to rob is as gentleman-like as it was among the Highlanders a century ago. It is very easy to conceive in what degree such a class would appreciate the blessings of a common treasury and settled government, the aims to which our interference has tended. The ruling sovereign may be well disposed towards us, and anxious to improve his country, but his nobles do not consider themselves bound by his engagement, and he has no power to control them."

In the interior of Selangor, especially in the Bernam district, there are numbers of the jungle people, known to Europeans as Jakuns, who speak a language totally different to Malay. The Jakuns are clever gardeners, and cultivate sugar-cane, plantains, sweet potatoes, and other vegetables in abundance, also tobacco; rice they use but little. They can walk wonderful distances, and make their way with ease through a jungle which Malays would not dream of entering, and will carry as heavy loads as a Chinese coolie. They are a wonderfully harmless and docile race and often make themselves very useful to the Malays, who requite them very badly.

History.

History. The name Selangor is not to be found in the earlier Malayan records. The district which now bears the name appears to have been known as Klang, and to have been a dependency of the Malayan Empire. At the commencement of the 18th century, a chief from Goa, in Celebes, settled in the Klang country, and founded the dynasty still existing under the title of the Sultans of Selangor.

The Dutch long had a station and fort at the mouth of the Selangor River, from which they monopolised the tin of the district, as far as their power extended. In 1783 they were attacked by the then Sultan, Ibrahim, and abandoned the place in a panic. It has been held ever since by the native Princes; but Sultan Ibrahim was compelled to acknowledge himself a vassal of the Dutch, and to give them a monopoly of the tin of the country at a low price.

During the occupation of Malacca by the British, from 1795 to 1819, the Government did not keep up the Dutch monopolies and trading relations with the neighbouring States; but in 1818, on the eve of the surrender of Malacca, in order to protect our commerce from the effects of a restoration of the usual Dutch monopoly system, a treaty was entered into between the Government of Penang and the Sultan of Selangor, by which British trade was to be protected, and no monopolies were to be given to other Powers.

When the Dutch returned to Malacca in 1819, they commenced

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at once to restore their relations with the native States, and especially to recover the lucrative tin trade at Selangor and other places on the Peninsula. Before, however, they had time to organize their plans, and to get the better of the resistance of their old enemy, Sultan Ibrahim, who was still alive, Malacca was finally given over to the British by the Treaty of 1824. In the following year, 1825, another Treaty was made between the Government of Penang and the same Sultan Ibrahim, in relation to Perak affairs, and for the suppression of piracy.

Sultan Ibrahim died in 1826, leaving a number of sons, one of whom succeeded to the throne with the title of Sultan Mahomed. Under his rule, the central Government became weak; his brothers and relations assumed to act without control wherever they settled, and anarchy on land and piracy by sea followed in their natural course. No security existed for life or property, and trade was paralysed.

The state of the country became even worse under the reign of the present Sultan, Abdul Meshed, who succeeded to the throne about the year 1859, and he, finding great difficulty in retaining his power from the turbulence of his chiefs, appointed, in 1868, his son-in-law to be Governor of the whole kingdom, with full powers. The latter appears to have endeavoured to govern the country properly, and, above all, to check piracy; but he had a very difficult and dangerous task, being systematically opposed by the various petty chiefs, some of whom resisted him by open fighting.

The coasts of Selangor are peculiarly well situated as a refuge and haunt for pirates, and were especially famous in former days for piratical attacks of the most daring character. Under the Indian Government, attempts were persistently made to put down piracy, and were attended with a large measure of success, but after 1866 our action became intermittent, and in consequence acts of piracy became more frequent.

In 1871 a case occurred which demanded our interference.

In June of that year a junk, owned by certain Chinese merchants of Penang, sailed from that place for Perak, but failed to reach its destination. After some time, information reached the owners that the vessel had been seized and carried off by a few Malay passengers (who had no doubt embarked with that object), and that the crew and the rest of the passengers, numbering in all 34 men, women and children had been murdered.

The colonial steamer "Pluto" with a party of police was immediately despatched in search of the missing junk, which was found at anchor in the Selangor river. The police, placing themselves in communication with the Malay authorities at Selangor, succeeded in recovering the junk with part of its cargo, the greater portion of which was in the shops of the town, and also in arresting nine of the pirates.

In attempting the capture of another, decided opposition was

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met with, and the police were obliged to retire, the "Pluto" being fired on as she left the river.

On learning what had occurred, the Acting Governor of the Straits Settlements requested Captain Robinson, R.N., H.M.S. "Rinaldo," the senior naval officer at Singapore, to proceed with his ship to Selangor, and endeavour to secure the remainder of the pirates, and to obtain possession of the stolen property. The "Pluto" was ordered to join the "Rinaldo" in making the attempt.

On the morning of the 2nd July, the two vessels arrived off the bar of the Selangor river. The boats of the "Rinaldo" were at once manned and armed, and started for the town in tow of the "Pluto."

The entrance of the river was commanded by two forts, one close to the water, the other, which had been originally constructed by the Dutch, rather further inland, and at a higher elevation. They were subsequently found to be armed with 38 guns, mostly old 32 and 24 pounders.

The town was reached without opposition, and parties were landed to search the houses on both banks. One of these parties having encountered a native chief, tried to force him to go on board the "Pluto." He, however, escaped to the jungle, from which a heavy fire was opened on the party, who were compelled to make their way back to the "Pluto" sustaining a loss of one officer and six men wounded. The other boats returned without accident, when they heard the firing. The "Pluto" being quite unfitted for warlike purposes (her boilers being very liable to injury from an enemy's shot), it was considered advisable to take her at once outside the river. She was despatched to Penang with the wounded, and carried a message to the Lieutenant-Governor asking that troops might be sent from that place to form a landing party.

In compliance with this request, a force of 130 men, consisting of detachments of the Royal Artillery and 19th Madras N. I. under command of Colonel Shortland, immediately proceeded to the Selangor river.

Before the arrival of these troops, however, Captain Robinson had taken steps to punish the Malays for their hostile action. On the morning of the 4th the "Rinaldo" entered the Selangor river, in doing which she had to run the gauntlet of a severe fire from the forts. In less than five minutes she had three men wounded, and her hull and rigging sustained considerable damage. Once the forts were passed and the river was entered, the enemies' position was turned, and in a short time most of their guns were dismounted and the defences rendered untenable.

A musketry fire was, however, continued at intervals on the ship, and Captain Robinson deemed it advisable to wait for the troops from Penang before attempting to land.

On the arrival of Colonel Shortland with his party, a landing

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was effected, but no enemy was found, the Malays having retreated, abandoning their positions. The town was then burnt, the forts destroyed, and the guns rendered unserviceable.* A decree was subsequently obtained from the Sultan of the country, outlawing the chiefs concerned in the piracy and subsequent attack on the "Rinaldo."

The vigorous measures thus taken had the immediate result of overawing the marauders; but the effect was only transient, and towards the end of 1873 piracy on the Selangor coast had assumed such a formidable character as to threaten the peaceful navigation of the Straits. One case was attended with unusual atrocity; a British boat, registered at Malacca, having been seized at Langat and the crew, with one exception, murdered. Shortly after, the perpetrators were recognised at Malacca by the survivor and arrested. It was at first intended that they should be tried there, but on further reflection it was considered that a greater effect would be produced if their punishment were inflicted by the authorities of their own country and at the scene of the crime. As the China squadron happened to be at this time in the neighbourhood, the opportunity was favourable for bringing a strong influence to bear on the Government of Selangor. Accordingly the Governor of the Straits Settlements (Sir A. Clarke), along with the admiral and seven men-of-war, proceeded to Selangor and entered into negotiations with the Sultan. The latter was readily induced to agree to the Governor's demands, and nominated a court, presided over by the Viceroy, for the trial of the offenders, who were found guilty and executed. The piratical stockades at the mouth of the Langat River were destroyed, and a compensation of $5,000 was exacted from the Sultan.

Administration.

At the Sultan's special request, Selangor has now passed under the immediate protection of the English Government, and the administration of the country is now conducted on the same footing as Perak, namely, under the advice of a British Resident assisted by a mixed Council of State (*see* page 152).

This arrangement appears to be cordially acquiesced in by the great majority of the inhabitants, and to be highly successful, and thus Selangor seems to be now in a fair way to obtain a peaceful future. Piracy may be said to be a thing of the past, and though small quarrels may occasionally occur, it is believed that under the present *régime* there is no danger of a recurrence of those disturbances which formerly distracted the country and prostrated all legitimate enterprise.

The police force is under a European superintendent, an inspector, and a number of native non-commissioned officers.

* A detailed account of this Expedition will be found in Parliamentary Paper, C. 465.

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FINANCE.

Finance.

Export duties are levied on tin, gutta-percha, salt fish, rattans, &c., and import duties on opium, salt, rice, tobacco, &c. The revenue, which is at present mainly dependent upon the tin mines, amounted in 1878 to $190,000, in 1879 to $184,000, in 1880 to $216,000, and in 1881 to $244,000 (estimated).

The expenditure is kept within the revenue, the principal item being establishments, including allowances to native chiefs, and the next largest for public works.

The debt of the country on the 1st January, 1881, was $317,000. Interest on this is regularly paid at the rate of 6 per cent., and when the funds of the State admit, a portion of the principal is refunded.

On the whole, the financial condition of Selangor is considered to be moderately satisfactory, and likely to improve in the future.

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SUNGEI UJONG.

Geography, &c.

Geography, &c.

The State of Sungei Ujong, which, like Perak and Selangor, is now under British protection, is situated between Selangor on the west and north, and Malacca on the south-east. It is bounded towards the interior by the native States of Jelebu, Sri Menanti and Rambau.

The principal rivers are the Lukut and the Linggi.

The Lukut may be entered at high water springs by vessels drawing 9 feet. Steam launches can ascend as far as the village of Lukut, about 5 miles up.

The Linggi River from its mouth to Sempang, 5 miles up, forms the boundary between Malacca and Sungei Ujong. Here it divides, the right branch flowing through Sungei Ujong, while the left divides Malacca from Rambau. The river is navigable for vessels of 8 feet draught as far as Sempang. The right branch can be ascended by large native boats and steam launches up to Permatang Pasir, five miles above Sempang, and by small boats for about 30 miles higher.

Sungei Ujong is separated from Sri Menanti by a range of mountains from 2,000 to 3,000 feet high, through which leads a narrow defile, called the Bukit Putus Pass. On the coast, between the mouths of the Lukut and Linggi Rivers, is the steep bluff point of Cape Rachado, 368 feet high, surmounted by a light-house.

Harbours.

Harbours.

The chief port of the country is at Permatang Pasir.

Communications.

Communications.

The Linggi River is the principal channel for bringing down the tin from the mines in the interior. Within the last few years several roads have been opened, viz.—From the Residency to the Port of Permatang Pasir, a distance of some 23 miles; from the Residency to the coffee plantations recently established on the hills behind Pantay, 16 miles distant; through the Bukit Putus Pass, affording free communication with Sri Menanti.

Villages.

Villages.

The principal village appears to be Linggi, on the river of that name, about a mile above Permatang Pasir.

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Productions and Trade.

Productions and trade.

Sungei Ujong has hitherto been dependent principally upon its tin mines, which are situated in the interior, about 30 miles from Linggi, and there has been very little agriculture. Lately, however, padi cultivation has very considerably increased, and several tapioca plantations are in progress. Two experimental plantations have also been opened by Ceylon planters, one in the low country for Liberian coffee and cocoa, the other on the ranges behind Patay, at an elevation of from 1,500 to 2,000 feet, intended for the cultivation of Arabian coffee and cinchona. Should these undertakings meet with success, the future of Sungei Ujong will rest on a firmer basis than the fluctuating value of tin.

The value of the exports for 1880 amounted to $364,000, while the imports are put down at $241,000.

Inhabitants.

Inhabitants.

The country is thinly populated; about two-thirds of the inhabitants are Chinese, the remainder being Malays. They are peaceably disposed, the offences being few and in the main of a trifling nature. Arms are not allowed to be carried without a pass. Debt slavery only existed to a limited extent in Sungei Ujong, and the custom has now almost disappeared.

History.

History.

Till within a comparatively recent date, Sungei Ujong formed part of a confederation known as the Negri Sambilan, or Nine States.

Their early history is somewhat obscure. The tradition runs that, soon after the foundation of the first Malay Empire at Singapore, in the 12th century, a chief of the Menangkabow family crossed over from Sumatra with a number of followers, and settled in the interior of Malacca. The newcomers intermarried with the Jakuns, the former inhabitants of the country, and rapidly increased in numbers. In course of time they divided themselves into nine petty States, under as many penghulus, or chiefs, feudal to the sultans of Malacca, and, after their expulsion by European powers, to those of Johore, by whom they were consolidated under the name of the Negri Sambilan, or Nine States. The names of these States were Sungei Ujong, Rambau, Johol, Naning, Segamet or Muar, Jelabu, Klang, Jompol, and Jellye.

The State of Naning soon became so closely connected with Europeans, and the authority of its chief was so curtailed by them, that it was excluded from the confederation, its place being taken by Sri Menanti, a district to the north of Rambau, which had risen into importance. Subsequently, when the kingdom of Selangor was formed, Klang was incorporated in it, and ceased to form a part of the confederated States.

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It does not appear clearly how the States had been governed from Johore before; but in 1759, a Bugghese of Rhio was in charge of them as Viceroy, acting directly under the authority of the Sultan of Johor. Whatever his rights and position may have been, his rule was so little beneficial that the chiefs rebelled, and he was obliged to retire to Rhio. He was not replaced, as far as can be found, by any other superior native authority from Johor.

About this time the Sultan of Johore made over to the Dutch his rights over four of the States, viz., Sungei Ujong, Rambau, Sri Menanti, and Johol. The result of the interference of the Dutch, and the absence of Malay rule from Johore, were felt, here as elsewhere, in the want of that direction in religious and social matters which cannot well be given to a Mahomedan people by an European Government. To supply this want, the four States applied to the Sultan of Johore, as he had resigned his own authority over them, to procure for them a ruler from the royal family of Menangkabau, the parent Malay State. The Dutch Government sanctioned this arrangement, which lasted from 1773 to 1832, during which period five princes were successively sent from Menangkabau to the four States as rulers, under the title of "Eang Depertuan Besar." It appears that the sovereigns thus appointed were considered mainly in the light of pageant princes, and were not allowed to take any active part in the government, each punghulu administering his own State. After this period the four States remained independent, and, until recently, a state of anarchy and confusion prevailed amongst them. Hostilities were especially prevalent between Sungei Ujong and Rambau, in consequence of which the trade on the Linggi river was frequently interrupted.

On several occasions attempts were made by the colonial authorities to bring about a more settled state of matters, but for some time without much effect. In April, 1874, however, the Datu Klana, or paramount ruler of Sungei Ujong, entered into an agreement, by which, on condition of being permitted to procure arms from Singapore for the defence of his country, he bound himself to carry on his government with justice, to offer protection to traders, not to allow expeditions to be got up against Government or its friends, and to place the river, from Sempang as far as Permatang Pasir, under the control of Government.

In September, 1874, the Datu Klana wrote to the Governor of the Straits Settlements, to the effect that one of his most influential chiefs, the Datu Bandar, had expressed openly his disapproval of these engagements, and threatened to attack him if he attempted to fulfil them. Under these circumstances, he begged for the assistance of Her Majesty's Government.

In reply to this communication, a Government officer, with a party of police, was sent to try to induce the Datu Bandar to come to amicable terms with the Klana. The Datu Bandar, however, resisted all advances and asserted his independence of

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the Klana, though he disclaimed any intention of taking up arms agaist him.

The Klana having then collected what he deemed a sufficient force, attempted to reduce the Bandar to submission. He was at first to some extent successful; but on proceeding to attack the village of Kapoyang, the Bandar's principal stronghold, he was repulsed, his followers deserted him in panic, and the Klana only effected his escape by the protection and assistance of the British official and his police guard. The Datu Bandar then assumed the offensive, and threatened the Klana at his own residence.

Under these circumstances the Governor of the Straits Settlements considered it advisable to despatch to Sungei Ujong a combined military and naval force, under the command of Captain Dunlop, R.A., and composed as under:—

1 Officer, 20 N-C.O's. and men R.A., with a 7-pr. mountain gun.
2 Officers, 50 N-C.O's. and men H.M.'s 1 | 10th Regt.
4 Officers, 40 seamen and 20 marines H.M.S. "Charybdis," with rockets.
An Inspecter and 50 native police.

This force was landed on the 26th of November, at a place called Lukut, on the coast of Selangor, some six miles north of the Cape Rachado Lighthouse, and after a toilsome march of 16 miles over a jungle path reached, on the 28th, Ampangan, the Datu Klana's residence, where they found a detachment of 20 men of the 1 | 10th Regt., under Lieut. Palmer, who had arrived three days before from Malacca, viâ the Linggi river.

Captain Dunlop learned on his arrival that the Datu Bandar's followers had retired to Kapoyang, where they had stockaded and entrenched themselves, and the same day sent two parties by different roads to reconnoitre the place.

It was ascertained that the village was surrounded on three sides with thick jungle, while in front were deep wet rice fields and abandoned mines, almost impassable except in single file along a path completely commanded by stockades. The village was protected on all sides by a heavy palisade with a deep ditch, and each house within the enclosure was again defended in a similar manner.

Captain Dunlop, who had accompanied one of the parties, considering the opportunity favourable for attacking the rebels and preventing their escape, ordered up the remainder of his party with the gun and rocket tube. Great difficulty was however experienced in transporting the gun, the Chinese carriers refusing to proceed. It was, therefore, decided to leave it behind, and to try the effect of rockets and rifle fire. The attacking force got into good positions under cover and kept up a constant fire on the stockade, to which the enemy replied with great persistence, but with small effect. Several rockets were fired, but it was found that the range from which they had to be discharged (about 400 yards) was too short for effective practice, and it was seen that without the gun the enemy could not be driven out of the stockades which

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commanded the approach to the village. Before it could be brought up, however, darkness had set in, and Captain Dunlop decided on withdrawing for the night. The only casualty on the British side occurred at this time, a seaman being mortally wounded by a rifle bullet from the stockade.

On the following morning a son of the Datu Bandar presented himself to make negotiations for his father's surrender, and hostilities were suspended for twenty-four hours to enable him to fulfil his promises. The Datu Bandar, having, however, failed to appear within the prescribed time, the whole force started for Kapoyang, which on arrival they found deserted. The stockades and houses were then destroyed, and the fugitives pursued and driven out of the State of Sungei Ujong. The Datu Bandar, with his family and principal fighting men, took refuge in Selangor, where they soon after gave themselves up to the British Resident.

At the request of the Datu Klana, Sungei Ujong was now taken under British protection, a detachment of troops and a police force being left to support the authority of the Resident. Since this appointment no further disturbance has arisen in the country, and the measures taken for its better government have brought about a greatly increased prosperity.

The rising importance of Sungei Ujong, however, aroused the jealousy of the chiefs of some of the neighbouring States, who soon displayed feelings of animosity against the Klana, and against the English as his protectors. In the end of November, 1875, hostilities broke out; the Resident of Sungei Ujong, when proceeding on a reconnoitring expedition into the adjoining State of Sri Menanti, being stopped by an armed force, who opened fire on his escort, and compelled the party to retire. The Malays then, collecting a considerable force, invaded Sungei Ujong, and established themselves at a village called Paroe, about five miles from the Residency. The invaders, as it afterwards appeared, were principally from the State of Jumpol, a few only coming from Sri Menanti and Muar. Rambau remained neutral throughout.

The British force at this time in Sungei Ujong consisted only of about 40 men of the 1 | 10th regiment and 70 native police; but, on the news of the outbreak reaching the Governor of the Straits Settlements, reinforcements were at once despatched thither, 20 men of the 1 | 10th regiment being sent from Malacca and 85 Sepoy with two mountain howitzers from Singapore, while the detachment from the Indian column already spoken of* (250 Ghoorkas and half a battery R. A. under Colonel Clay) was put under order to follow as speedily as possible.

The Malays meanwhile were gaining confidence, and it was feared that if they were not checked they would make a night attack in large force. On the arrival, therefore, of the Sepoys, it was determined that an effort should at once be made to dislodge them from their position.

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Accordingly, on the 7th of December, a force of 35 men of the 1 | 10th regiment, 48 police, and 85 Sepoys, with a 12-pounder howitzer, started for Paroe.

Owing to difficulties of the road, there was great delay in bringing up the gun, and the attack was commenced without waiting for it. For about two hours firing was kept up, the assailants suffering considerable loss, while little impression was made on the enemy, who were thoroughly protected by their stockades. At last the howitzer arrived, and the affair was then soon concluded. After a few rounds had been fired, the enemy were seen to be retiring from their position, which was then assaulted and captured without serious resistance. The attacking force on this occasion sustained a loss of 10 killed and 30 wounded.

The Malays retired about seven miles, to a very strong position, a narrow defile between two jungle-covered hills, called the Bukit Putus Pass, which they fortified with stockades and other obstacles.

On the arrival of Colonel Clay's column, which was soon followed by a naval brigade of 32 men, the offensive was resumed. In order to drive the Malays from their new stronghold it was determined to divide the force, one portion, of about 170 men, making a wide turning movement so as to get into the rear of the enemy's position, while the main body, 280 strong, attacked the pass in front. The relative departure of the two parties was timed so that the attack from front and rear should be simultaneous.

On the 20th of December, Colonel Clay with the main body reached the foot of the pass, and sent on an officer with 25 Ghoorkas to reconnoitre the position. This officer advanced cautiously through the dense jungle and got within a few yards of the enemy's defences without his approach being perceived. Seizing the opportunity, he rushed into the nearest stockade, followed by his men, and in a few minutes cleared it of all its defenders, with the loss of one Ghoorka killed and one wounded. The work thus captured commanded a considerable part of the position, and after half an hour's steady firing the Malays were dislodged from their remaining defences and put to flight.

The position, naturally of great strength, had been carefully stockaded, and under ordinary circumstances could not have been taken without serious loss.

No further resistance was met with, the enemy being thoroughly cowed and disheartened; a few only remained under arms, and these were shortly induced to give themselves up peacefully. By the end of December the active operations were concluded, and although troops were retained in Sungei Ujong for some months longer, as a precautionary measure, they were all withdrawn before the following year.

In November, 1876, Sir W. Jervois, the Governor of the Straits Settlements, called a meeting of the chiefs of the Nine States,

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with the view of coming to an arrangement as to their future government. It was then settled that Sri Menanti, Jumpol, and Johol, with some minor territories, should form a confederacy under a sovereign, to be called the "Eam Tuan," who was to reside at Sri Menanti, each State being governed by its own Datu under the "Eam Tuan." Also that Sungei Ujong, Rambau and Jellabu should be independent States under their present rulers. It was distinctly provided that the Eam Tuan should not interfere with the three larger States, and he engaged also to consult with the Maharaja of Johore in the event of any difficulty arising in any matter relating to the government of the confederation. This arrangement appears to have proved successful, the rule of the Eam Tuan being attended with a fair amount of satisfaction to the subordinate chiefs and people. All the States in the neighbourhood of Sungei Ujong are now on friendly terms with her and with each other.

Administration.

Administration.

The chief ruler of Sungei Ujong is the Datu Klana, who is assisted by a British Resident. The form of Government is similar to that already described as existing in Perak (*see* page 168), except that a Council has not yet been established. The present form of administration appears to be satisfactory to the Datu Klana and to the other chiefs of the State.

Finance.

Finance.

The revenue of Sungei Ujong for the last four years was as follows:— 1878, $76,000, 1879, $77,000, 1880, $84,000, and 1881 (estimated) $104,000. The financial condition of the country is considered to be satisfactory, and should the cultivation of coffee, which has been lately introduced, prove successful, increasing prosperity may be looked for. So far the revenues have been derived almost exclusively from an export duty on tin, and from the excise farms (opium, spirits, salt, &c).

The principal items of expenditure are salaries, establishments, and allowances to chiefs. Public works are carried out in proportion as the state of the revenue permits.

In consequence of the disturbances of 1874–5–6, Sungei Ujong incurred a debt, amounting in the latter year to $33,000, but the whole of this has now been paid off.

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MUAR.

The small territory of Muar adjoins the Malacca frontier. It appears to have been at one time of considerable importance, but owing to bad government, the land has been allowed to revert to jungle, and the population is insignificant. Newbold writes of it—"The land is an uninterrupted mass of jungle and swamp, exhibiting only a few straggling villages and clearings. Thriving rice-grounds have degenerated into barren marshes; an enormous forest, peopled with wild elephants, overshadows a soil naturally rich and prolific, while the rhinoceros and tapir stalk unmolested over spots, once, if tradition belies them not, the sites of large and populous towns."

The territory is traversed by the important river Muar, which has its rise, according to the natives, amongst the mountains of Jelabu, and by means of which there is a water communication almost all the way with the eastern coast of the Peninsula, of which the Pahang traders frequently avail themselves. Its course is tortuous, and its banks for the most part low, muddy, and covered with dense jungle. The current runs at the rate of $2\frac{1}{2}$ miles an hour. At its embouchure the river is 600 yards wide, and has a depth of water on its bar of from $\frac{3}{4}$ fathom to 4 fathoms. At Gressik, 18 miles up, it is about 100 yards broad and 7 fathoms deep.

In the interior of Muar is situated Mount Ophir (3,840) one of the loftiest mountains in the Peninsula.

Its productions are the usual ones for such a country, most of them spontaneous products of the forest, as ivory, ebony, beeswax, rattans, &c. The interior, however, yields a little gold and tin.

It would appear that Muar has been feudal to the Sultans of Johor since the time of their ancestors, the ancient sovereigns of Singapore and Malacca. In 1855, when Sultan Ali of Johor was dismissed from the sovereignty of that State, the territory of Muar was assigned to him, but after his death in 1877 it was handed over to the Maharaja of Johore.

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JOHORE.

Geography.

The principality of Johore embraces the southern extremity of the Peninsula, reaching to Muar on the west and to Pahang on the east coast, being separated from the latter by the Indau River. It includes also all the adjacent islands, except those in possession of the European Governments. The area of the whole territory is probably not less than 10,000 miles, but it is very thinly inhabited and is at present chiefly jungle. Cultivation, however, is on the increase.

The principal rivers appear to be the Formosa on the west coast, the Johore, the embouchure of which is at the eastern entrance of the "Old Strait of Singapore," and the Indau. The latter has a depth of 15 feet on its bar at high water, the rise and fall of the tide being 9 feet; the average depth for a distance of 34 miles up is from 5 to 6 fathoms. Both banks of the Indau are thickly wooded, and during heavy rains the right bank is usually submerged. The Johore river is navigable for vessels up to the town of Johore, 10 miles from its mouth.

Harbour.

Some eight miles east of the mouth of the Indau river is Blair Harbour, which is safe and sheltered from all winds with anchorage in 4 to 4½ fathoms.

Town.

The chief town, Johore Lama, is situated on the Johor river, 10 miles from its mouth. It was once a place of considerable importance, but now consists only of a few huts. It is no longer the abode of the Rajah, whose residence is at Johor Bharu, on the shore of the Old Strait.

Productions, &c.

The products of Johore are ivory, ebony, gold, tin, sandal wood, camphor, beeswax, gutta-percha, &c. The cultivation of pepper and gambier has been introduced and is now carried on to some extent. There is also some prospect of the higher lands being brought under coffee cultivation. The larger animals of the forest, namely, two species of ox, the elephant, tapir, rhinoceros, hog, and above all the tiger, are numerous.

Inhabitants.

The population is estimated at 61,000, viz., 20,000 Malays, 40,000 Chinese, and 1,000 natives of India. The Chinese are rapidly increasing in numbers.

History.

The Mahomedan Empire of Johore was founded in 1512 by the Sultan of Malacca, after his expulsion from that place by the Portuguese, and was long ruled over by his descendants. From one of these the cession of the Island of Singapore was obtained by the Indian Government in 1819 (*see* page 50).

In 1855 the reigning sovereign, Sultan Ali, was, on account of incapacity, displaced from the throne of Johore by the Government of India, in favour of his "Tumonggong," or principal officer of

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State, the small territory of Muar and an annual pension being assigned to the ex-Sultan.

The new ruler fulfilled the favourable expectations which had been formed of him, and under his prudent administration the country entered on a career of improvement. His son, the present maharaja, has followed his father's example, and has shown unswerving loyalty to the British Government, to which he rendered most valuable services during the recent disturbances in the Malay Peninsula. Johore may now be said to be in a flourishing condition.

An old-standing feud exists between Johore and the neighbouring state of Pahang, but it is to be hoped that our influence will always be sufficient to prevent hostilities.

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PAHANG.

Geography.

The State of Pahang stretches along the eastern coast of the Peninsula, from the Indau River on the south to the Kemaman on the north, which latter separates it from the State of Tringganu. Its limits to the west are very undefined, but it is believed to extend at the back of Tringganu to the western boundaries of Kelantan. Along the shore its length is about 80 miles, and it embraces, besides the territory on the continent, two chains of islands running parallel to its coast, and generally at the distance of about 30 miles. The country is mountainous, the highest peaks however rising to a height of not much more than 3,000 feet above the level of the sea. Rivers are numerous, the largest being the Indau and the Pahang. The latter is wide, but shallow and full of sandbanks; a vessel drawing 3 feet would experience great difficulty in getting up to the town, 7 miles from the entrance. This river was formerly a place of great trade and is still frequented by Chinese junks. It is almost inaccessible during the north-east monsoon.

The geological formation consists of granite, sandstone, shale and clays.

Pahang, though at present little more than an uninhabited forest, is a most beautiful, rich, and valuable country; the scenery along the coast is said to be most picturesque.

Town.

The town of Pahang, a very poor place, lies on both banks of the river, the Chinese quarter being on the right bank and the Malay quarter on the left. The latter contains the residence of the Bandahara.

Productions, &c.

The vegetable products are gutta-percha, timber, rattans and damar; its minerals are iron, tin and gold. Some years ago large quantities of the two latter were sent to Singapore, but the receipts have now dwindled down to almost nothing. The wild mammalia are the elephant, rhinoceros, tapir, tiger, leopard, deer, monkeys, buffalo and wild ox.

Inhabitants.

The population is estimated at 42,300 (30,000 Malays, 12,000 Chinese, and 300 inhabitants of India). Besides these the aboriginal tribes inhabiting the forests are particularly numerous.

Administration.

Pahang was originally a dependency of Johore, but is now an independent State under a ruler called the "Bandahara," who does not, however, appear to exercise much authority over his subordinate chiefs. It may be considered to be to a certain extent under the protection of the Straits Settlements Government, for, although we are under no treaty obligations with Pahang, the Bandahara has, on occasions of internal depressions or external attack, sought their advice and protection, and it is to the assistance so afforded that Pahang mainly owes its present independent position.

The Bandahara afforded active assistance to the British Government during the recent outbreaks.

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TRINGGANU.

Geography. The Malay State of Tringganu lies between Pahang on the south and the Basut River, which separates it from Kelantan, on the north. Its boundaries on the west side are little known; it seems to be uncertain whether it extends inland to the central mountain range of the Peninsula, or whether Pahang extends behind it up to the borders of Kelantan. It is one of the richest States on the east coast, extremely fertile and possessing large mineral wealth, but has, as yet, been very little opened up.

Its principal river, the Tringganu, has a depth of 7 feet on its bar at low water. Within the bar and immediately off the town, there is good anchorage in 5 fathoms, but above the town the river is shallow.

Town. The town of Tringganu, which lies not far from the mouth of the river, has a population of some 5,000 inhabitants, including a number of Chinese settlers. It contains many stone and brick-built houses.

Trade. Tringganu carries on a considerable trade, principally with Singapore, exporting gambier, coffee, pepper, paddy, gutta, tin, galena, and large numbers of cattle. Fisheries are carried on extensively.

Inhabitants. The population is reckoned to consist of about 25,000 Malays, 5,000 Chinese, and 300 natives of India; in all 30,300.

Government, &c. Tringganu is nominally tributary to Siam, but practically independent. It presents, every three years, a golden rose, valued at $4,000, to the Siamese Government, as a recognition of its authority, but the latter interferes in no way in the internal affairs of the State. Sir W. Jervois reported that, on a visit to Tringganu in 1875, he was received with great courtesy and cordiality by the chiefs, who evinced a marked respect and friendship for the British Government.

Hardly any taxes appear to be levied, the Sultan's source of revenue being due mainly to the fact that he himself is the largest trader in the place.

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KELANTAN.

Geography.

Kelantan is bounded to the north by the Malay State of Patani and to the south by that of Tringganu, the River Banara dividing it from the first and the Basut from the last. It has the Malay State of Kedah to the west, the great central chain of the Peninsula being the boundary. The country is rich in resources of every kind. Large tracts have been cleared, in which the cultivation of paddy is carried on to a great extent; the clearings also, when not taken up for this purpose, afford excellent pasture land.

The River Kelantan, the embouchure of which is in lat. 6° 16′ N., divides, about five miles from its mouth, into five different streams, enclosing a fertile and highly cultivated delta, inhabited by a large population engaged in fishing and agricultural pursuits. The main stream is broad, but very shallow and rapid. It is frequented during the S.W. monsoon by large numbers of native trading vessels.

Kelantan possesses no good harbours, and the coast is so exposed to the N.E. monsoon that a landing is with the greatest difficulty effected during the time that it is the prevailing wind.

Town.

The town of Kelantan stands on the right bank of the main river, five miles from the entrance. It is of considerable extent, extending about a mile along the river bank, and seems to be densely populated. There are a few brick buildings, but the houses are built chiefly of bamboo and attap. It contains two markets, which are well supplied with provisions.

Productions.

The delta of the Kelantan river produces immense quantities of cocoa-nuts and a great variety of fruits. Of vegetables there are maize, rice, potatoes, beans, vegetable marrows, cucumbers, melons, &c.; and all vegetable produce is very cheap. Tobacco is extensively cultivated. Bullocks, sheep, goats, and fowls are plentiful. Large numbers of cattle are annually exported.

Gold, which used to be extensively worked in the country, is now said to be exhausted. Tin and galena are found, but are little worked at present.

Inhabitants.

The population is estimated at 25,000 Malays, 5,000 Chinese, and 300 natives of India; in all, 30,300. The people are said to be friendly and courteous to strangers.

Government, &c.

Kelantan existed as a State at the close of the 15th century, and before the arrival of the Portuguese; but of the time or the manner in which it was founded nothing is known.

Like Tringganu, it is nominally tributary to Siam, to which it presents triennially a golden flower, as a recognition of its

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authority; but this sovereignty is only nominal, and the Siamese Government scarcely recognises Kelantan as a tributary province.

Sir W. Jervois, who visited Kelantan in 1875, was received with great courtesy and cordiality by the chiefs, who professed a marked respect and friendship for the British Government.

The revenue of the State is raised by taxes imposed on gambier, paddy, salt, and opium.

PATANI.

Geography. Patani is the most northerly of the Malay States on the eastern side of the Peninsula. It is situated between Kelantan and Sungora, the most southerly province of Siam, and extends inland to the central mountain chain which divides it from Kedah.

A great deal of land has been cleared for the cultivation of rice, for which the country is admirably adapted; and when paddy is not being grown, excellent grass land supplies its place.

The Patani River (6° 55′ N. lat.) is wide but the water on the bar is so extremely shallow that a boat drawing only 3 feet of water cannot enter. Vessels are obliged to lie a considerable distance off the mouth, where there is anchorage in 2 to 5 fathoms.

Town. The town of Patani proper is situated on the right bank of the river, some two miles from the mouth, but its outskirts extend for a considerable distance on both sides of the stream. Its inhabitants seem to be hardworking and busy; many boats are to be seen anchored off the banks, both loading and discharging.

Productions. Rice is the staple article of produce. Salt is collected by evaporation, and forms a considerable item of commerce. Galena and gold are worked to some extent: tin and iron ore are also found.

Inhabitants. The population is estimated at 25,000 Malays, 5,000 Chinese, and 300 natives of India; in all 30,300.

Government, &c. Patani, like Kelantan and Tringganu, is nominally under the Siamese Government, to which it sends a tribute every three years, but practically independent. Its ruler and chiefs profess the greatest friendship for the British Government.

The Dutch formerly had a trading establishment here, and were succedeed by the British in 1610; but the factory then erected has long disappeared, having been given up in 1623.

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RAMBAU.

Geography.

The independent native State of Rambau lies to the north of Malacca and to the south and east of Sungei Ujong. The country is hilly, the ranges varying from 2,000 to 3,000 feet in height.

As already mentioned (page 163), the Linggi River divides at Sempang, about 6 miles from the sea, into two branches, of which the right, or northern, flows through Sungei Ujong. The left branch forms the boundary between Rambau and Malacca up to Sungei Landoo, above which it is a mere streamlet, coming down from the Rambau hills. Below the fork the river is wide and deep. From Sempang, as far as Sungei Pidass (about 5 miles up), it is navigable for boats; above this the channel is shallow, and so overhung and obstructed by trees as to prevent any but very small canoes from passing.

Villages.

The principal places are Chembong, Sempang, Bandar (on the left bank of the Linggi, about 13 miles above Sempang), Kaling and Battu Ampar. Chembong, the residence of the Penghulu, is said to contain about 600 houses, and to have a petty trade in timber, dammar and wax, which are bartered for opium, cloth, iron utensils and tobacco. The other places mentioned are mere villages of a few huts.

Inhabitants.

The Malay population is probably under 10,000. During the disturbances in the neighbouring States, the Rambau people remained neutral and maintained a friendly tone. They are deeply attached to their country and old customs, and it would be unwise to interfere with them so long as they keep to themselves. Several aboriginal tribes also inhabit the mountains and forests.

History.

The history of Rambau has been alluded to under Sungei Ujong (pages 165–169).

Administration.

Rambau is an independent State. The form of government is peculiar, and has been handed down from the time of the first Settlement from Menangkabau in Sumatra. The ruler, or Penghulu, is elected by the people. Under him are the Sukus, or heads of the eight tribes into which the population is divided.

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SRI MENANTI.

Geography. Sri Menanti, which adjoins Sungei Ujong and Rambau, is encircled by mountains from 2,000 to 3,000 feet high. It communicates with Sungei Ujong by the Bukit Putus Pass, which was strongly defended by the Malays in 1876. A path has now been made through the pass, and a defensible police station built there by the Sungei Ujong Government.

The country is easily traversed, being, with the exception of the wooded mountains, comparatively open. The low lands are cultivated with padi, and the grassy slopes on either side of the valleys planted with fruit trees.

Villages. The principal villages are Sri Menanti, the residence of the "Eam Tuan," Pinang Saribu, and Pila.

Productions. Agriculture is carried on here to a greater extent than in most Malay States, but a bad harvest is sufficient to reduce the inhabitants to great destitution.

The articles of export are tin, sapan wood, wax, rattans, and rice, most of which find their way down to Malacca.

Inhabitants. The inhabitants are about 8,000 in number. If left alone, they are quiet and inoffensive. They are deeply attached to their country and ancient customs; and before our troops marched through the State in 1876, they used to boast that no white man had ever been there. Having learned that they are powerless to resist our troops, they are not likely in future to provoke hostilities. The population is divided into 12 tribes, each presided over by a Suku.

The history of this State has been alluded to in treating of Sungei Ujong (*see* pages 165–169).

JELLABU OR JELEBU.

The independent state of Jellabu lies to the east of Sungei Ujong. It produces gold, ivory, tin, aloe wood, jaggery, rattans, &c. These generally find their way to the Pahang market. Its population is estimated at about 3,700, not including the aborigines. Remarks on its history, &c., will be found under Sungei Ujong, pages 165–169.

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JUMPOL.

The state of Jumpol, which adjoins Jellabu and Sri Menanti, is now associated with the latter and with Johol, under an "Eam Tuan" (*see* page 169). The country is of a similar character to Sri Menanti (*see* page 178). It has communication by river with Pahang on the east coast, by the rivers Seruting and Braugh, and with the Straits of Malacca by the Muar River.

It produces a considerable quantity of tin, rice, dammar, rattans, and a little gold, which is sent down the Muar River to Malacca (8 days' pull), and also to Pahang.

The population is estimated at 2,000.

JOHOL.

Johol, another of the "Nine States" which lies to the north of Malacca and the east of Rambau, joined the confederacy formed in 1876 (*see* page 196). Its trade consists chiefly of gold dust and tin. Fruits, rattans, jaggery, and fowls are brought in considerable quantities down to Malacca. It has a population of about 2,000.

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JELLYE.

Jellye is far in the interior and has had no relations with our Government, nor has it at present with any other States with which we are connected. It is said to produce a considerable quantity of gold and tin, which go to Pahang.

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APPENDIX.

HINTS TO OFFICERS ORDERED TO SINGAPORE.*

The following notes were drawn up with especial reference to officers of Royal Engineers, but may probably be found useful also by those of other branches of the Service:—

Plain Clothes.—Thick plain clothes may be left behind, except a couple of old suits for the voyage as far as Port Said. Blue serge is the nicest thing to wear, and two suits should be brought out. White serge is also very comfortable, especially for working in the sun, and it is a good plan to bring a roll of this material from England to be made up as required by the Chinese tailors. The climate is too hot to allow waistcoats to be worn, so coats must be made accordingly. Get two thin pair of riding trousers, and if you are fond of racing bring breeches and boots. Cricket things are required, also a waterproof warranted to stand constant damp heat. It is a mistake to bring white clothing from England as it can be made better and cheaper on the spot. So also can light tweed and shooting suits. Order a good supply of white shirts, thin silk or merino jerseys, and coloured bajus and pyjamas. Shoes are more comfortable than boots. Take out a moderate supply of boots and shoes, and make your bootmaker understand that you will probably want a small package of the same sent to you occasionally whilst you are abroad. On the spot you must wear all your boots and shoes regularly in turn, or they will spoil. A thin cashmere dress suit should be ordered, plenty of white ties, and a small supply only of white gloves in a good stoppered bottle. For little things such as these you pay three times as much as in England. Kit.

Uniform.—Bring a supply of gilt buttons, two pair of shoulder-cords and chain-straps. A thin cashmere shell jacket may be made on the spot from your mess jacket as a pattern, but a thin pair of gold-laced trousers should be brought out for wear at Government House. Otherwise, as a rule, white trousers are worn for mess. A tunic must be brought, but will seldom be put on, as it is worn only on such rare occasions as the Queen's birthday ball, swearing in a new Governor, &c. I was going to say that your tunic would seldom "see the light," but that would have been a

* From an article in *The Royal Engineers' Journal* of February 2nd, 1880, by Lieutenant H. E. McCallum.

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mistake, as things have to be aired every two or three days to prevent mildew. A light helmet is a desideratum. The weight of Ellwood's regulation helmets makes them almost unwearable. Staff, Artillery, and Engineer officers should bring a spare pouch in soldered tin box, as, in spite of all precautions, it will one morning be found that the damp heat has converted the one in use into a jelly.

Furniture.—It is scarcely worth while to bring out barrack furniture, as Chinese carpenters are very fair upholsterers, and their camphor-wood chests of drawers are very good. The rattan furniture, which can be obtained on the spot at cheap rates, will answer all your requirements. Let your boxes be of tin, and not of wood or leather, which the white ants soon demolish.

Plate, &c.—Silver is only a temptation to Chinese burglars, who would find no difficulty in walking off with it from the bungalows, which are always open. If you are married, therefore, and are going to take a bungalow of your own, bring only electro-plate. Cutlery, glass and crockery are very expensive to buy at Singapore and should be brought out; but nothing should have about it a distinctive monogram or crest, as without it you will be able to sell your pantry ware, when you leave the place, for nearly as much as you gave for it. Bring a duplex lamp.

Saddlery.—A good light saddle will be found very useful. You may drive a pony dogcart, an American buggy, or a pair of Australians in mail phæton. The first named is the most popular, and you may therefore safely bring a set of small pony harness.

Weapons.—If you are buying a gun, get a light one, weighing about 6½ lbs., and have a pair of heavier barrels made to fit the stock, to fire ball and heavy charges. Holland will sell you a stock with two sets of barrels and case complete for about £36. If you are an enthusiastic sportsman, and propose to hunt tigers and elephants up the Muar River, or rhinosceri in Perak, bring out a pair of heavy express rifles. You may get a day's very good fun shooting crocodiles from a Malay "dug out" in the rivers of the Peninsula. In the Muar and Quedah rivers I have seen them lying quite thick at low tide. If you are fond of fishing, bring a light rod, as you can get some bottom fishing when you stay (as you probably will) at the Government convalescent bungalow at Changhie, about 14 miles from Singapore. In the rivers of the Malay Peninsula, capital fishing may be got at times, especially about Kota Lama, a name well known to those who took part in the Perak expedition of 1875–6. Here the river is shallow, and a curious sight may be witnessed at times, when bamboo fishing stakes are erected across the river and the whole population in the neighbourhood form in a line and drive the fish towards the stakes.

Servants.—A European servant is quite useless, as the odds are that he will take to drink and he requires as much waiting on as yourself. If you are married, however, and intend bringing out your wife and children, a nurse is a great comfort, but she must be

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elderly and, by choice, plain, for age in Singapore does not always save her from contracting matrimony and leaving you in the lurch. The Malay Ayahs, however, are very good nurses, and become much attached to the children. At the same time, I would advise you to leave your children at home. They become washed out before they are out a month, whilst it is almost impossible to give them an education.

For your own personal attendance, you have your choice of engaging a Malay, Chinese, or Kling boy—locally so called, although the said boy may be 40 years of age. Having tried each class, I would unhesitatingly recommend a Malay. Though, perhaps, not so smart as a Kling, he is not such a thief as a Chinese boy, or such a liar as a Kling. Moreover, being a Muhammadan, he does not drink as they do; though the Koran does not prevent him from occasionally polishing off your champagne and whisky, beverages which, he contends, the Prophet could have known nothing of when he wrote the Koran. The wages which you may expect to give as a bachelor are:—

	Per Mensem.
Malay boy	$9
Malay syce	$7
Chinese water-carrier and lampoo	$6
Total	$22

If married, you will require, in addition:—

Indian butler	$12
Malay ayah	$8
Malay (No. 2) boy	$7
Chinese cook..	$12
Javanese gardener	$6
Making a total of	$67

Horses and Dogs.—The climate is very deadly both to horses and dogs. Australian horses are those chiefly imported, but few stand the climate well. The hardiest and prettiest animals are the little fast-trotting ponies from Deli, in Sumatra. They are every day becoming more difficult to get, and you must expect to give $200 for a good one. Most of the ponies now imported come from Rangoon, and you will be able to get one for about $120. As regards dogs, smooth, short-haired dogs, like the fox-terrier, stand the climate best. A good retriever, if he survives the first six months, is invaluable to the keen sportsman, but he will require a good deal of care and looking after.

Passages.—The P. and O. steamer, *viâ* Brindisi, alternates every week with the Messagéries Maritimes mail from Marseilles, enabling you to arrive at Singapore from England in about 30 days. Government passengers start from Southampton in the P. and O. mail, and probably change at Galle; and this route takes about seven days longer than by Brindisi. A troopship, which comes with reliefs, naval and military, once or twice a-year,

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takes, as a rule, about two months to make the voyage. If you are coming home on six months' leave, which you can get after three years' service, come by the French mail to Marseilles. The steamers are very comfortable, and they pile on steam on the homeward trip, often saving four days on the contract time. Cheaper passages to England, but not nearly so comfortable, can be obtained in the Holt, Glen, or Castle steamers. If you are not in a hurry to get home, a pleasant trip may be made by taking the route of Hong Kong, Shanghai, Japan, and America.

Arrival.—Singapore is a free port, so you have no bother with customs and so forth. If you arrive by mail steamer, your best plan is to hand a list of your baggage to the agent of the Hotel de l'Europe, and jump into a gharry (cab) with your portmanteau. Malay is the language of every day life, and you must at once set about picking it up; your gharry wallah will not understand English, but "Purgi (pronounced piggy, 'go') punch house," will get you on the way to the Hotel de l'Europe, which is known to the drivers as the "punch house besar (big)," an English word which I suppose they think sounds better than "grog shop." On arriving at the hotel, take a room for the night and get one of the boys to direct your gharry to the house of your friends (if you have any at Singapore), or to the barracks at Tanglin, three miles from the town, if it be still the morning, when you can report yourself to the Brigade Major. Bungalows are rather difficult to get, so if you are married the hotel will probably be your headquarters for a while.

Botany.—To botanists the Malay Archipelago will prove a most interesting field, whilst on the island itself you may find beautiful rare orchids and ferns and tropical vegetation generally. Trips taken by officers to Borneo have resulted in magnificent collections of orchids.

Zoology.—The only wild animals in the island are deer, pigs, and monkeys, but on the Peninsula you may find in addition, elephants, rhinoceri, buffaloes, and tigers. Tiger shooting you may get in Johor, close to Singapore, the Maharajah of which will give you every facility, and elephants may be shot up the Muar river; but as a rule the thick jungle makes it very difficult to reach big animals, who must be hunted down by proper shikaris. At Sayung, in Perak, I have heard of hot springs where they say there is very fair shooting.

Entomology.—Insect life is, as in all tropical countries, very abundant, and a great many different specimens of beetles, moths, and butterflies can be collected in the island.

Ornithology.—To an ornithologist the Peninsula offers a rich and but little-explored field, roughly divided by the central ranges of hills into two distinct districts—the western, or Ind-Malayan, the ornithology of which is allied to that of East India and Ceylon,

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and the Eastern Malayan, which approaches that of China and the islands of the Eastern Archipelago.

Valuable collections of the former have been made by officers stationed in the Peninsula after the outbreak in 1875–6, but of the latter extremely little is known, and doubtless many new species of birds are yet to be discovered there.

A great deal of ornithological work may be done in the island of Singapore itself, and before coming out you should be able to skin and preserve both birds and animals, an art easily acquired.

Precautions as regards health.—To live well and temperately, to take plenty of exercise in the morning and evening, to go in the sun only with the head and back well covered, are the principal precautions to be taken to preserve health. All Europeans, however, especially ladies, feel the effects of the constant high damp temperature after a year or two, and if once you are ill there is nothing for it but to change to a colder latitude. Once ill you cannot pick yourself up, and the most sanguine temperaments become dreadfully depressed. In this respect Hong Kong has the advantage of Singapore, as it has a bonâ fide cold season.

Quarters.—The quarters at Tanglin, whether married or single, are very comfortable and well suited to the climate. The officers' quarters are in one long building (in which you will get a front and back room and a bath room), with mess, ante, and billiard rooms in the centre. There is a capital verandah running round the building.

The married quarters are pretty detached bungalows, standing about 50 yards apart, each with a garden and lawn. There is a great run on these married bungalows, so you may find it difficult to get one. Immediately facing the quarters are the public gardens, a large tract of ground, tastefully laid out and where the band plays.

Rent.—Private bungalows are seldom vacant, and you must expect to give a high figure, $50 or $60 per mensem, even for a small one within a mile of the town.

Cost of living.—Singapore is a very expensive place to be quartered in. Servants and rent I have already alluded to. Provisions are also very dear, due to the fact that nothing is to be got in the island but fowls, fish, and a few vegetables. Mutton comes from Calcutta, and costs 2*s.* 6*d.* per lb.; beef from Quedah and Kelantan, States of the Malay Peninsula to the northward; potatoes from Bombay and Australia. Thus it is not at all easy to have variety of diet. Singapore curries and sambals are supposed to be the best in the world, and make their appearance at every meal. An unmarried subaltern can, however, with care, live on his pay, but if he be married he must be prepared to spend another £300 per annum, especially as he will have, in all probability, the expense of sending home eventually his wife and children sick from the climate.

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Books.—Very few good books have been written on Singapore The best to read are :—

Wallace's Malay Archipelago,
Cameron's Tropical Possessions in the East,
Thompson's Malacca, Indo-China and China,
McNair's Perak and the Malays,
Journal of the Eastern Archipelago.

There is a very fair public library in Singapore.

Amusements.—There is some of the best snipe shooting in the world to be got in Malacca and Province Wellesley. If you are a fair shot you may expect to bring home 50 couple in a day to your own gun in the month of November. In Singapore itself 5 to 10 couple is a good day's work. Large deer and wild pig can also be shot in Singapore, but require a beat of 30 or 40 men, and 5 or 6 guns. Such a beat takes place once or twice a month, but you must not be surprised to have a blank day. Lawn tennis and cricket are played on the esplanade every evening from half-past four to six, and cricket matches every Saturday from three to six, a match lasting three or four Saturdays. Lawn tennis ties for champion bats and challenge cups take place frequently, and some very good play is shown. The cricket-ground is the great place of réunion in the afternoon, the ladies driving down there to watch the tennis and pick up their husbands.

General Remarks.—Singapore, to a man of pursuits, is a very interesting station to be quartered in, owing to the wide fields to be explored in the Malay Peninsula and Eastern Archipelago. For a short time it is very healthy, but after a time it becomes monotonous, and the climate will then begin to tell upon you. The very amusements are then regarded as exertions which you indulge in more for the sake of home associations and of keeping yourself off the sick list, than from inclination.

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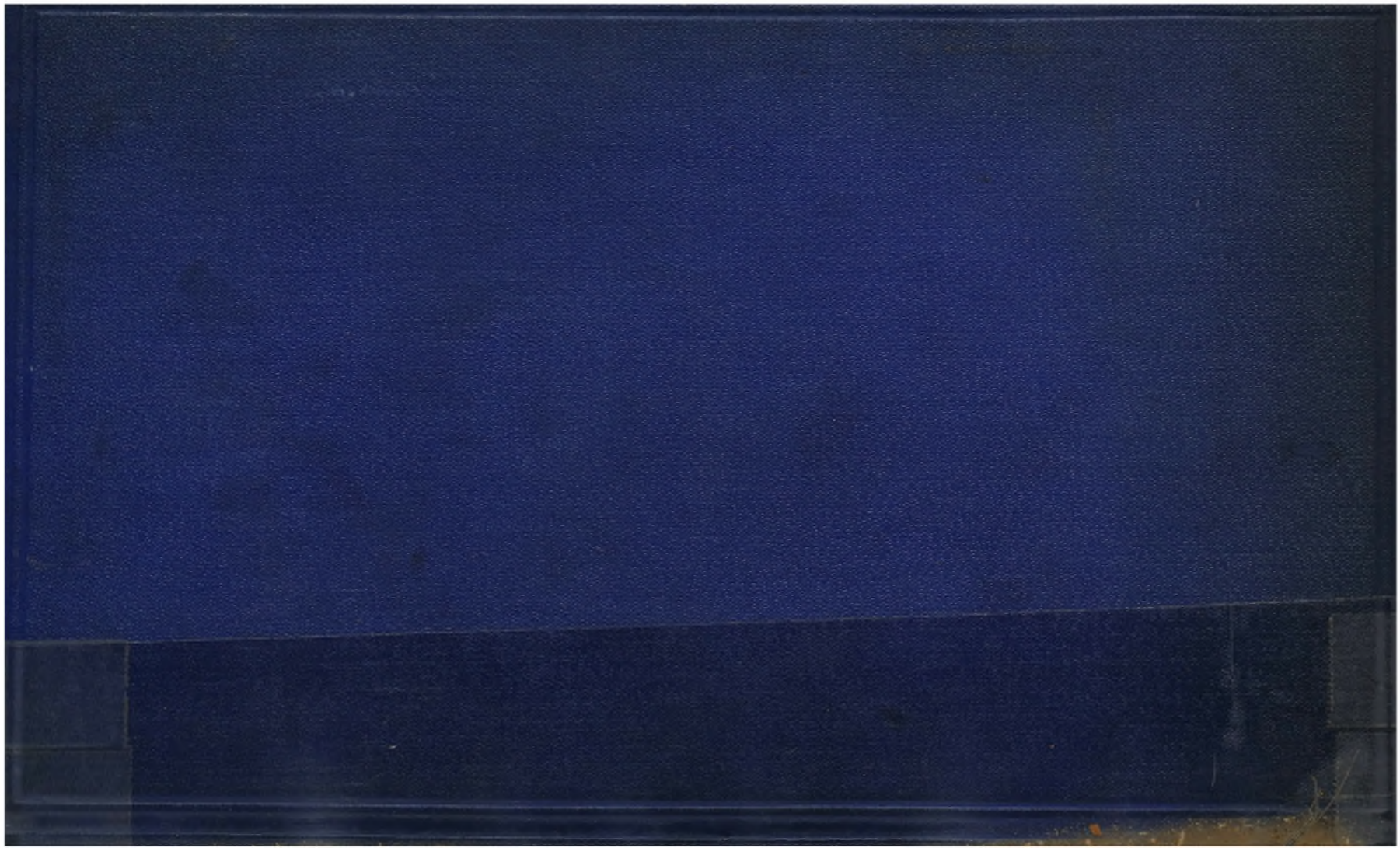

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